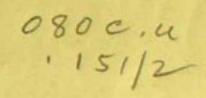


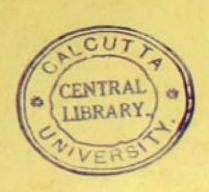
### STUDIES IN THE TANTRAS

### PART I

PRABODH CHANDRA BAGCHI, M.A., Dr. es Lettres (Paris)
Lecturer, Calcutta university







PUBLISHED BY THE
UNIVERSITY OF CALCUTTA
1939

CENTRAL LIBRARY

E PANTIKAS

# BCU 725

#### PRINTED IN INDIA

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY BHUPENDRALAL BANERJEE
AT THE CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY PRESS, SENATE HOUSE, CALCUTTA

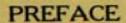
119472

Reg. No. 886B-October, 1939-E.



### CONTENTS

					P	AGE
Preface			***	***	***	vii
On some Tantrik texts studied in Ancient Kambuja					***	1
Further notes on Tantrik texts studied in Ancient Kambuja					***	16
	hābbāṣā and Sandhā			***	***	27
	ādhanamālā	***	1000		***	34
On Foreign element in the Tantra					***	45
Some Technical terms of the Tantras						61
Some aspects of Buddhist mysticism in the Caryapadas						74
Notes on the word Paravrtti						87
		APPENDI	x			
Detailed	Notices on Manuscr	ipts—				
I.						93
11.	Sammoha Tantra			***	***	96
III.	Brahmayāmala	***	***	***		102
IV.	Pingalāmata			***		105
v	Javadrathayāmala			***		109



The present book is a collection of articles which were published in the Indian Historical Quarterly and the Calcutta Oriental Journal between 1930 and 1934. They contain the results of my examination of manuscripts of the Nepal Darbar Library collection in 1929. I have thought it fit to publish them together in the form of a book, as my future studies in the Tantras will follow the lines suggested therein. As many of the manuscripts referred to in the articles have little chance of being edited and published for a long time to come, I have added in an appendix detailed notices on them.

September, 1939.

P. C. BAGCHI.

## ON SOME TANTRIK TEXTS STUDIED IN ANCIENT KAMBUJA

I

The inscription of Sdok kak Thom<sup>1</sup> (discovered in the province of Sisophon, Cambodia) mentions the introduction of the mystic cult of Devarāja along with some Tantrik texts in Kambuja during the reign of king Jayavarman II who came to the throne in the saka year 724 (=802 A.D.). The inscription is a long one and contains the chronicle of the religious foundations of Kambuja during a period of about 250 years. The inscription is not dated, but the last date mentioned therein is saka 974 (=1052 A.D.). The king, Jayavarman II, came from Java to rule over Kambuja, and the new cult was introduced shortly after his ascent to the throne. The story of this introduction is told in some details in the inscription.<sup>2</sup> The high priest of Jayavarman was a Brahmanical sage named Sivakaivalya. This Brahmin was enjoying a piece of land in the village of Bhadrayogi in Indrapura given to his family

- 1 BEFEO XV, pp. 70-71.
- 2 Ibid :-
  - (51) Hiranyadāma-dvija-pungavo' gryadhīr ivāvjayoniķ karuņārdra āgataķ i
  - (52) ananya-labdhām khalu siddhim ādarāt prakāšayāmāsa mahībhṛtam prati u
  - (53) sa bhūdharendrānumato' grajanmā sa-sādhanām siddhim adikṣad asmai i
  - (54) hotre hitaikanta-manah-prasattim samvibhrate dhama-vivrmhanaya
  - (55) śāstram Siraścheda-Vināśikhākhyam Sammohanāmāpi Nayottarākhyam
  - (56) tat Tumvuror vaktra-catuşkam asya siddhyeva vipras samadarsayat salı ॥
  - (57) dvijas samuddhṛtya sa śāstra sāram rahasya-kauśalyadhiyā sayatnaḥ ı
  - (58) siddhīrvvahantīķ kila devarājābhikhyām vidadhre bhuvanarddhi-vṛddhyai | A. XXVI-XXIX

long ago by the kings of Bhavapura (founded by Bhavavarman who was ruling about the middle of the 6th century). He was the guardian priest of a sivalinga installed in a temple in that village. Sivakaivalya, chosen as the priest by the new king, subsequently accompanied him to different cities founded by the latter. Now, a Brahmin named Hiranyadama came from Janapada (supposed to be some place in India) to the court of the new king Jayavarman and began to exercise a great spiritual influence on him. The king then authorised him to teach the new lore to Sivakaivalya, and to initiate the latter to the new cult. Then Hiranyadama gave Šivakaivalya-Sirašcheda, Vināšikha, Sammoha and Nayottarathe four sastras which were the four faces of Tumvuru. Sivakaivalya was also initiated to the cult of Devarāja (Kamraten Jagat ta rāja in Cambodian). Thus was the new cult introduced in Kambuja. The king Jayavarman, much attracted by it accepted it as the religion of the kingdom, and ordered that the yalis of the matrvamsal of Sivakaivalya only would be the legitimate guardians of this cult and would have the power to perpetuate it in future.

The Devarāja was a ŝivalinga and it was one of the most celebrated deities of Kambuja. But nothing is known as to the four "ŝāstras" mentioned which prescribed this cult. Dr. B. R. Chatterji is the first to make some suggestions about their identification.<sup>2</sup> He relies on the information supplied by Avalon,<sup>3</sup> and says, "There were three regions each with its special Tantras and that among the Tantras of the viṣṇukrāntā region (which includes Bengal and extends to Chittagong) the names of the Sammohana and the Niruttara Tantras approach very closely to the titles of two (out of four) of the Tantras (Sommoha and Nayottara) taught by Hiranyadāma. The Tantras Muṇḍamālā and Chinnamastā mean (as far as the names go) almost the same thing as Sirascheda—the third text taught to the Kambuja priest. The word Tumvuru (of which, according to the inscriptions, the four texts constitute the four faces) is the name of a gandharva, and there is a Gandharva Tantra in the Viṣṇukrāntā group."

- 1 BEFEO, XV, pp. 70-71:
  - (1) tan mātrvamše yatayas striyo vā jātā vi(dyā-vi)kra(ma)-yukta-bhāvaḥ n
  - (2) tad yājakās syur na kathañcid anya iti kṣitīndra-dvija-kalpanāsīt n B. XXXI

Indian Cultural Influence in Cambodia, Calcutta, 1929, pp. 273-4.

<sup>3</sup> Arthur Avalon, Principles of Tantra, I, Intro., pp. lxv-lxvii.

The classification, according to the krāntās, is not seen in the oldest Tantrik texts, for example the Yāmalas, as far as I know. On the other hand, such classification seems to be arbitrary and of late origin. The names of 64 Tantras attributed to each of these krāntās seem to be fictitious to some extent. So they do not throw much light on the texts introduced into Kambuja in the beginning of the 9th century A.D. It is therefore necessary to go back to older and more authentic sources.

According to the oldest traditions known to me 1 the Tantrik literature is classified according to the Srotas (=current, tradition), pīthas and amnayas. The Srotas or currents are three fold: daksina (right), vāma (left) and madhyama (middle). There are the three energies (śaktitrayam) of Siva. Besides these three currents which issue from Siva, we have reference to other currents: like Bhairava-srotas from which distinctive Tantras have issued forth. The classification into pithas is four fold: vidyāpītha, mantrapītha, mudrāpītha and mandalapītha. The third classification, viz, that into amnayas, is more common than the first two. The number of amnayas varies. But generally they are accepted to be five in number, issuing from the five mouths of Siva.2 Siva is represented as having four faces turning towards the four cardinal points and one on the top. The eastern (pūrva vaktra) spoke the Vedas, the western (paścima), southern (dakṣiṇa), northern (uttara) and the upper (urddhva) mouths spoke the different kinds of Tantras. There is no trace of any classification according to the krantas. The faces of Siva represent his five aspects. They are known as Vāmadeva, Tatpuruşa, Aghora, Sadyojāta and Isana facing the north, east, south, west and top and representing the / aspects of Isa, Isana, Isvara, Brahmā and Sadāsiva respectively. The original Saiva canon, the agamas, are classified according to the faces which proclaimed them (see Hindu Iconography, II, Pt. II, pp. 366 ff.). We should note in this connection that the Sadyojāta mouth which represents the Brahmā aspect is the western face, and naturally proclaims the Pascimāmnāya.

One of the oldest Tantrik texts preserved in the Nepal Darbar Library is the Niśvāsatattva-Samhitā written in the Gupta script of the

<sup>1</sup> This discussion is mainly based on the 39th chapter of the Brahmayāmala called Srotanirņaya. The MS. of this yāmala which I have examined is that preserved in the Nepal Darbar Library. It was copied in the Nepal Sam. 172=1052 A.D.

<sup>2</sup> Bhūskara Rāya in his commentary on the Vāmakešvara Tantra (see Ānandāšram Ed., p. 24) quotes from Bhagavān Parasurāma: "Pancāmnāyān paramārtha-sārarūpān praņināya iti."

#### STUDIES IN THE TANTRAS

8th century A.D. It is a collection of five sūtras which form a complete whole but each may be also counted separately and has its own chapters. These five sūtras are (1) Laukika-dharma, (2) Mūlasūtra, (3) Uttarasūtra, (4) Nayasūtra and (5) Guhyasūtra. The last of these five is more extensive than the others together and the first Laukika dharma is really ignored by the text itself in counting on folio 276 of the text:

prathamam mülasutrantu dvitiyam ādisamjñitam ı trtiyam prathamam nāma caturtham pürvasütrakam n

Thus the four texts are called: (1)  $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ , (2)  $\bar{A}dis\bar{u}tra = Uttaras\bar{u}tra$ , (3)  $Prathama = Nayas\bar{u}tra$ , (4)  $P\bar{u}rva = Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ . The  $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$  contains the names of 18 old  $Siva-\hat{s}\bar{a}stras$ :

vijayam prathamam [hy e] şām niśvāsam tadanantaram ı
svāyambhuvam ataś caiva vāthulam tadanantaram u
vīrabhadsam iti khyātam rauravam mākuṭās tathā ı
virasam candrahāsam ca jūānam ca mukhavimbakam u
prodgītam lalitan caiva siddha-santānam eva ca ı
sarvodgītam ca vijneyam kiraņam pārameśvaram u (fol. 24a.)

The same list with some slight variations is given by the Brahma-yāmala of which a MS, written in 1052 A.D. is preserved in the Darbar Library.<sup>2</sup> In the 39th chapter (fol. S69b) we find mention of the following texts:

vijayam caiva niśvāsam svāyambhuvam ataḥ param i vāthulam [vīrabhadram ca rauravam mākuṭāstathā] u vīrešaš ca tathā cānyam tata ūrdhvam nibodhata i candrajñānam ca prodgītam lalitam tathā u siddhisattvānakam caiva sarvodgītam ataḥ param i kiraņam ca mahādevi pāramešvara eva ca u

The second list is corrupt to some extent, though the MS. of the Brahmayāmala which we have examined is generally a very correct one. Apparently the tradition about these texts was more living in the time

The Exalted Raj Guru Hemaraja Sarma who has handled these MSS. for a long time is also of the same opinion. Mahamahopadhyaya H. P. Sastri has noticed it in his catalogue, Darbar Library Cat., Vol. I, p. 137. In his introduction to the Catalogue, p. lxxvii, he also says that this MS. "is written in transitional Gupta character which may be a century older than the Parameseara Tantra copied in 859 A.D."

See H. P. Sastri, Nepal Darbar Library Catalogue, II, p. 60.

when the Niśvāsatattva-Samhitā was composed, but it was not so when the Brahmayāmala was copied. In the interval the Tāntrik literature had become a fairly extensive one. The Tantras which were therefore considered to be authoritative in the 8th century and even prior to it were: (1) Vijaya, (2) Niśvāsa, (3) Svāyambhuvamata, (4) Vāthula, (5) Vīrabhadra, (6) Raurava, (7) Mākuṭa, (8) Vīrasa, Vīreša (?), (9) Candrahāsa Candra (?), (10) Jāāna, (11) Mukhavimbaka, Vimba (?), (12) Prodgīta, (13) Lalita, (14) Siddhi, (15) Santāna, Sattvāna (?), (16) Sarvodgīta, (17) Kiraṇa, (18) Pāramešvara.

The second text of the list, the Niśvāsa, seems to be the same as the Nisvāsatattva-Samhitā. We have already noticed that the independent chapter-division of the 4 sūtras constituting the text points to the fact that they were studied separately. The word samhitā also may indicate that it was simply a compilation of different texts. Amongst the four texts, the ādi and the prathama are the Uttara and Naya-sūtras. Their very position in the traditional computation: mula, adi, prathama and purva point out to their intimate mutual relation. It seems quite probable that they together constituted our Nayottara introduced in Kambuja in the beginning of the 9th century (802 A.D.). The contents of these two sūtras amply show that they were indispensable for the guidance of the priests. We can understand from them how the Nayottara could be useful to Sivakaivalya of Kambuja for conducting the newly introduced cult of Devarāja. The Uttara sūtra has five sections: (i) śivālayasthāpana, mālīkā, homa, (ii) and (iii) abhiseka and dīkṣā, (iv) and (v) jūānayoga. The Nayasūtra has 4 sections: (i) yāsa prakaraņa (yāga-?), (ii) prakṛtivicāra, (iii) rūpavicāra, (iv) paramāmṛta-sadbhāvavicāra (cf. also Sāstrī, Darbar Library Catalogue, I, pp. 138 f.; his notice is however incomplete). Their date of composition cannot be ascertained at present. But it was certainly composed long before the date of compilation of the four texts together, which also was done much earlier than the date of copying the present text. Thus roughly it may be said that the Nayottara-sūtras were

The same list occurs also in the Kāmikāgama (p. 1), published from Madras by Alagappa Mudaliar. Cf. Also Gopināth Rao, Hindu Iconography, II, Part I, pp. 367-68. Some of these texts exist in very old MSS. The Kiraņa and Pāramešvara tantra are preserved in Nepal. The Kiraņa was found by H. P. Sāstrī in a private collection at are preserved in Nepal. The Kiraņa was found by H. P. Sāstrī in a private collection at Bhatgaon. The MS. is very old and was copied in 924 A.D. See Darbar Library Catalogue, II, pp. xxiv and 99. The Pāramešvaramatatantra is preserved in the Darbar Library, II, pp. xxiv and 99. The Pāramešvaramatatantra is preserved in the Darbar Library, That MS. was copied between the 11th and 12th century A.D. (Sāstrī, ibid, pp. xxi and 46). Prof. Bendall mentions an older MS. of that tantra copied in 859 A.D. preserved in the University Library, Cambridge.

composed in the 6th and 7th centuries A.D., and compiled with the other two texts in the 7th and 8th centuries A.D.

The Brahmayāmala (loc. cit.) says that the Niśvāsa and the other Tantras mentioned above came out of the middle current and were communicated by the upper mouth of Śiva (madhyasrota-sambhūtā ūrdhvavaktrāt vinirgatā). In another place (fol. 200a) the Brahmayāmala distinctly says that the three texts known as Sammoha, Nayottara and Sirašcheda issued from the left current (vāmasrotas):

Sammohañ ca tathā proktam tathā caiva Nayottaram | [Sīraśchedam] tathā proktam vāmasrotād vinirgatam |

The same texts are also mentioned in a supplement to the Brahmayāmala namely the Jayadrathayāmala (Sāstrī, I, Ch. 40, see infra):

> savyasrotasi siddhāni śiraśchidra\* bhayātmakam ı nayottaram mahāraudram mahāsammohonam tathā ı trikam etat mahādevi vāmasrotasi nirgatam ı

The fact that the Nayottara is here attributed to the vāmasrotas (left current) whereas elsewhere it is, as a part of the Niŝvāsalantra attributed to the madhyama-srotas (middle current) should not be considered as a serious obstacle in accepting the identification proposed. We have actually mention of texts coming out of the combined current of vāma-madhyamayā (Vāmamadhyamayā caiva coditena tathaiva hi—Brahmayāmala, fol. 200a). There are reasons to believe that the classification according to srotas was not very well defined.

The manuscripts already discussed, as we have seen, mention two other texts, viz., the Sammoha and the Sirascheda of the 4 texts introduced in Kambuja. We should not therefore suppose that the 18 texts mentioned in the Niśvāsatantra list were the only Tāntrik texts known in India in the 8th century A.D. According to the Brahmayāmala we are led to believe that these were the texts handed down by one tradition only, that of the madhyasrotas. The same text refers to the Yāmalas coming out from the Bhairava tradition: Bhairava-srotas. These yāmalas are: (1) Rudra, (2) Kanda (= Skanda) (3) Brahma, (4) Viṣṇu, (5) Yama, (6)

<sup>1</sup> Though this portion is indistinct in the MS, the reading is supported by the text of the supplement, which repeats the same tradition.

It is evidently a mistake of the copyist for sirascheda.

Vāyu, (7) Kuvera, (8) Indra. It is true that these Yāmalas are not mentioned in the Niśvāsa-tantra, but in the Brahmayāmala of which we get a MS. copied in 1052 A.D. So they all had come into existence long before this last date. But it is possible to determine the date of their composition more precisely.

The Brahmayāmala has its supplements and two of them are preserved in the Darbar Library—(1) Pingalāmata, (2) Jayadrathayāmala. The latter is a very extensive work containing about 24,000 ślokas divided into 4 satkas of 6,000 ślokas each. The MS. of the Pingalāmata was copied in the Nepal Samv. 294=1174 A.C. There can be no doubt about the fact that it is a supplement 2 to the Brahmayāmala and is connected with the Jayadratha. In the very first chapter of the Pingalāmata (fol. 26) it is said: asya tantrasya Pingalāmatasamijāā. Pratisthākalpam Jayadrathādhikāram Brahmayāmalasya annyāti, Pingalābhatṭārikāyāḥ nimittam. The Pingalāmata therefore presupposes the existence of the Jayadrathayāmalam and professes to be inspired by the Brahma. The Jayadratha- was therefore written long before 1174 A.D. Though the two MSS. (satkas I and II) noticed by H. P. Šāstrī are of the 16th and 17th centuries.2

Barymayāmala, ch. 39, Srotanirņaga, fol. 169a:
Rudrayāmalam anyañ ca tathā vai Kandayāmalam |
Brahmayāmalakam caiva viṣṇuyamalam eva ca |
Yamayāmalakam cānyam Vāyuyāmalam eva ca |
Kuverayāmalan caiva Indrayāmalam eva ca |
Bhairavāṣṭāāṣṭkam etat Vidyāpiṭhād vinirgatam |
Yāmalāni tathā cāṣṭau nirgatāni na samšayaḥ |

The names of the eight Bhairavas also mentioned in this connection, are: Sacchanda Bhairava, Krodha\*, Unmatta\*, Ugra\*, Kapāli\*, Jhankāra\*, Sekhara\*, Vijaya\*.

2 Of the satkas of this text, preserved in the Darbar Library, Sastri has noticed only two, I and II. The MS. of the satka I is dated in Nepal Sam. 843=1723 A.D. (and not Nepal Sam. 847 as stated by Sastri, Darbar Library Cat., II, p. 1) and the MS. of the satka II is dated N. S. 762=1642 A.D. The writing of satka III appears to be of the same period but the satka IV is preserved in an older MS. The colophon of this Ms. (fol. 339b-340a) runs thus:

adhigate sakalašāstrasya yoginīv mdavanditacaraņa yugalasya—vividhavidyāvidyotitām tatkaraņasya—mahākāruņikasya—mahārājādhirājašrimajjayacandradevapūjitasya Kulācār yušrīdharaņipādevanā madheyasya šisyeņa paņditašrījomadevena likhitam iti.

Jayacandra here mentioned seems to be the same as king Jayacandra of Kanauj who fell before the Muhammadans towards the end of the 12th century. The MS. was therefore

The Jayadrathayāmala is distinctly called Sirašcheda. We have already discussed the texts which mention Sirašcheda as being handed down by the left current (vāmasrotas) and communicated by the vāmavaktra (the mouth turning towards the left). All the colophons of the Jayadrathayāmala run thus:

iti Bhairavasrotasi vidyāpīthe Sirašchede Srī Jayadrathayāmalamahātantre caturvimšatisāhasre Srīkālasamkarṣaṇyām, etc. (cf. Sāstri, loc. cit.).

The frame work of the present tantra is as follows; "Jayadratha the husband of Duryodhana's sister and the king of Sindhudesa renounced the world and settled at Vadarikāsrama in the Himālayas for the purpose of practising austerities. He propitiated the goddess Parvati who introduced him to Siva. The interlocution between these three is the substance of the Tantra. The first question asked was the nature of Mukti (salvation) which was explained according to the Sankhya system but Siva said that the telling on rosary the formula of Kalasankarsani was the easiest and the shortest way to salvation " (Sastri, Darbar Library Catalogue, II, p. 2). As regards the names mentioned in the colophon Sästri remarked in 1905 (Catalogue, I, p. xii) that these are "a string of names, the import of which, if it existed at all, is lost" but in 1915 (Catalogue, II, p. 114) in connection with the Tattvasadbhavatantra he explains them thus, "It is called Bhairavasrotas because Bhairava is the speaker and his speech began after he had snatched away the topmost head of Brahma and put it above his four heads. It is called Vidyāpātha (sic. vidyāpītha) because it treats of the goddess Sundari." But this explanation is not quite correct.

- (i) Bhairavasrotas, as we have already seen, means the Bhairava current or tradition. There are 8 Bhairavas from whom emanate the 8 yāmalas. So other Tantras of the Bhairavasrotas either must have been supplements to these 8 yāmalas or inspired by them. The Jayadratha-yāmala emanates from the same Bhairava (viz., the Unmatta Bhairava) who narrated the Brahmayāmala. Bhairava is conceived as an aspect of Śiva.
- (ii) We have already discussed the significance of the 4 pithas. Vidyāpītha is that method of sādhanā which relies on the vidyā or mantras.

copied either towards the end of that century or the beginning of the 13th century A.D. The script supports it. The Rajguru Hemaraja Sarma would attribute to the script used in this MS. a Kanaujiyā character ((Kānyakubjiya-srotas).

In the case of the Jayadrathayāmala it is the Kālasamkarṣanī mantra which is of importance.

(iii) The significance of Sirascheda is still unknown to me. I have not been able to trace the explanation offered by Sastri anywhere in the texts but some Pan lits of Nepal who are acquainted with the Tantras confirm his explanation. Some of the Puranas indeed preserve the story of Siva's cutting the head of Brahma, but in a little different way. In the Kūrmapurāņa it is stated that Brahmā was once boasting himself as the greatest God in the universe. Siva appeared on the scene and claimed that position for himself. Brahmā was, however, obstinate. Thereupon Siva got angry and ordered his Bhairava to cut off that head of Brahma which was reviling him. Siva thereby committed a sin of which he got rid by going on pilgrimage to Benares. The story of this rivalry between Brahmā, Śiva, and also Viṣṇu is told also in the Lingapurāna, Kūrmapurāna and Sivapurana. In those texts, however, there is no question of cutting the head of Brahmā; Siva establishes his superiority over the other two as the greatest architect of the universe and proves that Brahma and Vișpu are only his different aspects (see Gopinath Rao: Hindu Iconography, Vol. II, Part I, p. 105 ff. and p. 296 ff.). The same story, evidently taken from the Puranas, is told by Alberuni (Sachau, II, p. 147); "Brahman was in shape four-headed. Now there happened some quarrel between him and Sankara, i.e., Mahadeva-and the succeeding fight had this result that one of the beads of Brahman was torn off......Thus the head of Brahman was dishonoured by the hand of Mahadeva, who took it always with him wherever he went and whatever he did ..... After he had entered Benares the head dropped from his hand and disappeared." This is briefly the story about Siva's cutting the head of Brahma, but I have not yet found any reference to Siva's putting it on his own hand and communicating a class of Tantras through it. But it seems probable that the legend has some bearing on the Sadyojāta (lit. just-born) face of Siva, which represents his Brahmā aspect and through which he narrated some Tantras (see Gopinath Rao, loc. cit., Part II, pp. 366-77).

It is now quite clear that the Jayadrathayāmala is a Siraścheda text. Not only the colophons of the text but the text itself clearly speak of it. Thus towards the end of the Ṣaṭka III, (fol. 215a) we find the following text:—

Evam etan mayākhyātam tantram etad anuttamam i Vasisthena purādhītam naranārāyanair api ii

#### STUDIES IN THE TANTRAS

Brahmanā matsamīpe tu širašchedam mahābalam v Bahumantraguņākīrņam tavādya prakatīkītam n

Here the text is quite clear about the identity of the Sirascheda and the Jayadrathayāmala. Now the Jayadrathayāmala, as we have seen, is mentioned in the Pingalāmata' (of which we have a MS. dated 1174 A.D.), and apparently in the existing version of the Brahmayāmala (Chap. 39, fol. 169a) as "catuṣkaṣaṭkabhedas tu" (This MS, of Brahma is dated 1052 A.D.). A part of the Jayadratha itself is preserved in a MS. of the 12th-13th century A.D. If we admit that it is this Sirascheda which was taken to Kambuja in the beginning of the 9th century (802 A.D.) then the date of its composition would go back to the 8th century A.D., and necessarily the earlier versions of the Brahmayāmala and other yāmalas would go back to a still older period.

An apparently later tradition mentions another work as Sirascheda. It is the Karavīrayoga, also called Parātantra. A MS. of the tantra written in Saka year 1681 (1603 A.D.) is preserved in the Darbar Library. The colophons of some of its chapters are to be noticed in this connection:

fol. 21b—iti śrīmahāsrotasi śiraśchede karavīrayoge parātantre krama (?) dvādaśasāhasrikāyām kālikramanirņayasutram;

fol. 25a—iti śrībhairavasrotasi śiraśchede karavīrayoge parātantre paramārthanirnayah;

fol. 30a—iti śrībhairavasrotasi śiraśchede mahākaravīrayoge parātantre kāli kulakramaķ samāptaķ.

On fol. 1a the following words are put into the mouth of the goddess:

Sarvasrotodbhavam jäänam tvä[m] prasädä[d] brutam mayä i yämalästakapurvantu tattväny ekavidhänita (?) ii śiraśchedaś ca bahudhā mahā-santhāna-şatkakam i parātantram ca citkāra (phetkāra ?) sāgarāmbhāmahāsanam...ii caturvimšati vai lakṣāḥ sarveṇa tu dhāriṇi[?] ii

1 Karavīra means a cremation ground; cf. Hemacandra's Abhidhānacintāmaņi, IV. 55—" śmaśānam karavīram syāt." But the word is also used as the name of particular śmaśāna at least in two places. In Nepal a śmaśāna was known as karavīra (cf. S. Lévi, Le Népal, II, p. 282). In the Tibetan texts we find Karavīra as the name of a Vihāra in the city of Mālapura (Maṅgalapura?) in Uddiyāna (Pag Sam Jon Zang, p. 137, Index, iii; cf. also Taranath, tr. Schiefner, p. 324). It seems probable that in Uddiyāna also there was a particular cremation ground with that name which has been wrongly called a vihāra. Some Tāntric practices were to be performed only in the śmaśānas. Trace s of such practices are also found in Buddhist sources. Cf. Lankāvatāra (Nanjio), p. 308—

In this list the Karavīrayoga apparently mentions the texts of the school to which it belongs. It mentions the original Sirašcheda: the mahāsanthānaṣatkakam. The text here referred to seems to be no other than the Jayadrathayāmala containing the extensive ṣatkas. Thus it is evident that the original Sirašcheda text was the same as the Jayadrathayāmala. The Karavīrayoga apparently drew its inspiration from that text.

We have already seen that the Jayadrathayāmala came out either of the vāmasrotas or the vāmamadhyamasrotas. We should rather consider it to be issuing from the vāmamadhyamasrotas which was communicated by the western mouth Paścimavaktra because the Jayadrathayāmala itself speaks of its western origin [cf. Ṣatka III, fol. 215a: tadākṣa (?) paścimajanma jñātavyaṁ narasattamaiḥ]. We have also seen that it is the sadyojāta face (= Brahmā) which turns westward. Thus we understand why the Jayadrathayāmala, communicated by the paścimavaktra is called śiraścheda.

As regards the third text the Sammoha introduced in Kambuja in 802 A.D. nothing can be definitely stated at the present moment. We have already discussed the references to this text in the Brahmayāmala (MS. copied in 1052 A.C.). There is no doubt that the Sammoha (var. Sammohana) mentioned therein was the same as that introduced into Kambuja. So it was known in India long before 802 A.D. when it was taken to Kambuja. It is difficult to determine if this Sammoha had anything to do with the Sammohanatantra we get at present. One Sammohanatantra, as has been already pointed out by Dr. Chatterji, is attributed to the Visnukrāntā region. A Sammohinītantra belongs to the Rathakranta region (see Avalon, Principles of Tantra, I, lxv, lxvi). We have besides a Sammohanatantra preserved in a late MS. in the Darbar Library. Sastri (Catalogue, II, p. 183) also has noticed this MS. as a new one. The text is written in incorrect Sanskrit. All these texts of the Sammohanatantra might have been inspired by the original Sammohatantra which still remains to be discovered.

On the last and the 4th text taken to Kambuja in 802 A.D., viz., the Vināsikha, no light can be thrown at present. In the Jayadrathayāmala (Ṣatka I) we find a list of Bhairavas who had attained success through the Kālasamkarṣanī vidyā. Amongst these Bhairavas we find the names of Sikhā and Vināšikha Bhairavas. There are tantras issuing from some of the Bhairavas of this list. There is the name

of Phetkāri Bhairava from whom issued the Phetkāra tantra. Consequently we are justified in supposing that there was a tantra named Vināšikha tantra which was connected with the name of Vināšikha Bhairava. If this identification is accepted then the Vināšikha tantra was intimately connected with the Sirašcheda, i.e., the Jayadrathayāmala as the Kambuja inscription also would make us believe.

The texts thus being identified, it remains to be seen which is the god mentioned as Tumburu and why are the four texts called "the four faces of Tumburu." Dr. Chatterji says that Tumburu is the name of a Gandharva and thinks that he had something to do with the Gandharva tantra. But the context has no bearing on any tantra connected with the name of Tumburu. The inscription would have us believe that all the four texts were connected with that god. Tumbaru or Tumburu is recorded in all the lexicons as the name of a Gandharva but no detailed information is available on him. It is the name of one of the Yakşa worshippers of the Jina (see Hemacandra, Abhidhana-cintamani, I, 41, where the commentator explains the word as tumbuti ardati vighnan tumburuh). The Buddhist texts mention him as the king of the Gandharvas. Thus in the Mahasamaya Suttanta (Dialogues of Buddha, Part 2, p. 288) amongst the Gandharva chieftains are mentioned Pancasikha and Suriyavaccasa, the daughter of Timbaru. Then again in the Sakkapanha suttanta (ibid, pp. 302, 303) Buddha being enchanted by the music of Pancasikha questions him, whereupon the latter tells him the story of his love for Bhadda Suriyavaccasa, the daughter of Timbaru, the king of the Gandhabbas. In the story Pancasikha figures as a great musician who had a lyre of yellow Beluva wood. The Gandhabba Timbaru is also mentioned in the Pāsādikasuttanta. In the Chinese translations of these Sūtras the name of the Gandharva is transcribed as Tan-feou-lu=\*tam-bieu-ru=\*tamburu and as Teou-feou-lou=\*Teubieu-ru = \*tu(m)buru [cf. Tripitaka, New Tokio Ed., Vol. I, pp. 80, 633]. These forms show that in the corresponding Chinese versions the names presuppose the forms Tamburu, and Tumburu, and not Timburu as preserved in the Pāli texts. The Mahābhārata refers to Tumburu on several occasions: in Adiparva (65.51): supriyā cātibāhus ca vikhyātau ca hāhā hūhūh | Tumburus ceti catvārah smṛtāh Gandharvasattamāh || and again Adi (159.54): Gandharvaih sahitah śrīmān prāgāyatas ca Tumburuh. In the first verse Tumburu is evidently used as a general designation of the four Gandharvas: Supriyā, Atibāhu, Hāhā, Hūhū, whereas in the second verse it is used, in all appearance, as the name of one particular Gandharva, who was a musician. Whatever it may be, the number four seems to have been connected with the name of Tumburu, though it is difficult to determine at present whether it was originally the generic name of the four Gandharvas or the name of a particular Gandharva with four faces. But there is no doubt that Tumburu was pur excellence a musician. He is mentioned as an authority on the musical science.

The Samgītāloka, while mentioning the oldest authorities on music, cites the name of Tumburu. These authorities are: (1) Brahmā, (2) Siva, (3) Nandikeśvara, (4) Sivā, (5) Rambhā, (6) Tumburu, etc. (.....Sivanandikeśvara śivārambhāsthātā tumburuh......cf. Śāstrī, Catalogue, Vol. II, p. 72, and also Introduction, xxxv). These are the names of gods who revealed music to the mortals. Nandikeśvara is another name of Śiva; Tumburu is a Gandharva. A stringed musical instrument, Tamburā is connected with his name. Though

1 There seems to have been a time when Siva was four-faced. The Mahabharata preserves its traces (Anusasana, 141, sl. 5 ff. Umāmahesvara-samvāda). Siva tells Umā that it was simply to see her that he became four-faced through yogic power:

tām didrkeur aham yogāc caturmūrttitvam āgatah l
caturmukhas ca samvetto daršayan yogam uttamam l
pūrveņa vadanenāham indratvam anusāsmi ha l
uttareņa tvayā sārdham ramāmy aham anindīse l
pascimam me mukham saumyam sarvaprānisukhūāaham l
daksinam bhīmasankāsam raudram samharati prajāh l

In the Adiparva (216, sls. 22-28, Cal. Ed.) Maheśvara is stated to have done the same thing, i.e., assumed four faces through yoga to see the newly created Tilottamă from all sides—"evam caturmukhah sthănur mahādeso'bhavat pură." In the sculptural representation also, though Mahādeva should have, according to comparatively late texts, five faces, the figures of the four-faced Siva are not rare. Gopinath Rao in his Hindu Iconography (Vol. II, Part II, pl. cxv and p. 373) reproduces the image of Sadāśiva coming from Ellora. The image has four faces Mr. Rao for making it agree with traditional form of Siva says that "The figure has four faces and since all its arms are broken, it is not possible to say how many it originally possessed." But there is no mark of a broken face and there is no difficulty in admitting that it was from the beginning four-faced. At Yun Kang in North China, in the Buddhist sculpture which was directly inspired by Indian art there is a representation of Maheśvara with four faces. It belongs to the 5th-6th centuries A.D. Maheśvara is sitting on a bull. The four faces are turning to four directions. Somebody is standing near him carrying a trident (triśūlo). See Siren, Chinese Sculpture, Vol. II, pl. 34.

there is no definite text to fall back on, still it seems probable that Tumburu was no other than Siva himself. Both of them are represented as having four faces, and both of them are authorities on music. If this identification is accepted then a new light can be thrown on the text of the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom. The four tantras: Sira-scheda, Vināsikha, Sammoha and Nayottara are said to be Tumburor vaktracatuṣkam, not because they constituted the four faces of that god but because they issued forth from, or were communicated by, his four mouths (vaktra). Besides we should note that vaktra really means mouth and not face. The four Tāntrik texts therefore seem to have represented four different āmnāyas, connected with the four faces of Tumburu, who was, in all appearance, an emanation of Śiva himself like the Bhairavas.

The introduction of the four texts throws some light on another problem, viz., that of the relation of Kambuja with northern India. Dr. Chatterji has already tried to trace some of the elements of Kambuja culture to North Indian origin (Indian Cultural Influence in Cambodia, p. 253 ff.). Now there are reasons to believe that the four Tantras brought to Kambuja by Hiranyadāma were of North Indian origin. The Pingalāmata, which we have seen to be a supplement to the Brahmayāmala and to be connected with the Sirascheda-Jayadratha-yāmala, is very clear on this point. On folio 5b we find mention of the countries where the Siva-sādhanā was in vogue. It is no doubt the country of the Āryas—the Āryāvarla:

Vindhyottaragatenaiva Magadhāccāpareņa tu i
Himādrer dakṣiṇe bhāge pañcālāt pūrvatas tathā i
Āryāvarta iti khyātas tadbhavācāryasādhakau i
Agrajanmakulodbhūtaḥ sarvasādhāraṇo yataḥ ii
Višeṣaṇañ ca tathā brūmi agraṇīšaktivācakaḥ i
Saktyantaṁ janitaṁ janma janmāgrety abhidhīyate ii
Ka-pūrvāṣṭavinirmukt[ā] anyadešodbhavāvapi i
Kāmarūpañca kāśmīrau kāliṅgau koṅkaṇodbhavau ii
Kāmcīkošalakāveryā-rāṣṭrajāvapī varjayet i
Kimarthaṃ cet tatsiddhyarthaṁ-mokṣārthaṁ sarvajau śubhau ii
Sivavratadharācāryo nātidīrgho'tihrasvakaḥ, etc.

This passage mentions the countries of which the people are unfit for Sivasādhanā on account of their physical deformities. These countries all begin with ka: Kāmarūpa, Kāśmīra, Kalinga, Konkana, Kānei,

Kośala, Kāverī-rāṣṭra (?). This shows that the oldest Brahmanical tantras which included the 18 texts mentioned in the Niśvāsatattva-samhitā, the 8 yāmala and their supplements, all originated in Northern India. The four texts, the Nayottara, Siraścheda, Vināśikha and Sammoha, taken to Kambuja in the beginning of the 9th century A.D. would therefore be of North-Indian origin.

Thus we see that the four Tantrik texts mentioned in the Inscription of 802 A.D. during the reign of Jayavarman II are partly preserved in old MSS. in the Nepal Darbar Library. The Nayottara was probably the same as the Naya- and Uttara-sūtras which form a part of the Niśvāsatattvasamhitā, now preserved in a MS. of Gupta writing of the 8th century A.D. It was composed much earlier than the date of the MS. and may be safely placed in the 6th-7th century A.D. The Siraścheda was in all probability the same as the original Jayadratha-yāmala of which an extensive text copied in the 12th-13th century A.D. exists in the Darbar Library. The Vināśikha seems to have been a supplement to the Jayadrathayāmala and the Sammoha, the original, on which the later Tantras of that name were based. The four Tantras were of North-Indian origin.

Tumbaru appears to have been an emanation of Siva himself, who is represented as having communicated the four texts through his four mouths.1

The state of the s

1 For further details on Tumbaru see infra pp. 22 ff.

### FURTHER NOTES ON TANTRIK TEXTS STUDIED IN ANCIENT KAMBUJA

The Agamas and their influence .- The inscriptions of Kambuja abound in references to the Saivite canon. Various inscriptions refer to Sivasastra,1 Saivagama,2 Sarvagama,3 and Saiva-vyākaraņa.4 Agama means the oldest Saivite canon which conformed to the Vedas and had not entirely separated from the Vedic religion like the later Saiva sects. Sastra was a term synonymous with Agama. Agamas are generally believed to be 28 in number but we have already discussed the text of the Niśvāsatattva Samhitā, itself an Agama, which mentions only 18. We have also pointed out that these 18 Agamic texts must have existed long before the 8th century. The references to Agamas in the inscriptions of Kambuja, the oldest of which go back to the beginning of the 9th century, confirm the same view. One of the four texts mentioned in the inscription of Kambuja, viz., the Nayottara, at least belong to the Agama proper while the three other belong to the canon which grew later on under its inspiration. In the inscription of Angkor vat 5 we find another reference to an Agamic text: it is the Paramesvara (tasmin kuru mahadyagam yathoktain paramesvare). This is the Paramesvaratantra also called Pārameŝvaramatatantra which is one of the 18 Agamas mentioned in the Niśvāsasamhitā list. It is the 25th of the 28 Agamas mentioned in later literature.6 We have already seen that there is a MS. of the Pāramešvaratantra copied in 859 A.D. The work was certainly much older, as it is mentioned in the Niśvāsasamhitā list of which we have a manuscript of about the middle of the 8th century.

In my last article I have tried to show that the original Saivite canon which contained the 18 Agamas was of North-Indian origin as, according to them, the best Sivācāryas were the Brahmins of Āryāvarta. But the people of the surrounding countries, Kāmarūpa, Kāśmīra, Kalinga, Konkaṇa, Kāncī, Kośala, Kāverī-Rāṣtṛa were not eligible to that position for their physical deformities. By physical deformities we have

Inscription of Angkor vat, ibid, p. 392.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid, p. 389. <sup>4</sup> Ibid, p. 892.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Inscription of Phnom Sundak of about the end of the 9th century A.D. Bergaigne, Inscription de Campa et du Cambodge, II, p. 157.

Bergaigne, Inscription, etc., p. 390; also p. 384 with the note of Barth.
 Gopinath Rao, Hindu Iconography, II, Part I, pp. 367-68.

to understand that their statures did not follow the prescribed standard and were either too tall or too short (atidirgha atihrasvaka). Such a conclusion is also substantiated by other evidences. The Tantrasāra which is a famous compendium of Bengal Tantrism says on the authority of Kriyāsārasamuccaya, Yāmala and Vaišampāyana-samhitā that the persons with physical deformities of various description, and persons who are diseased, immoral, etc., cannot be gurus (ibid, p. 3)—atha nindyagurumāha—

#### Kriyāsāra-samuccaye-

Svitrī caiva galatkuşthī netrarogī ca vāmanah i kunakhī syāvadantas ca strījitas cādhikāngakah ii hīnāngah kapatī rogī bahvāsī bahujalpakah i etair doşair vihīno yah sa guruh siṣyasammatah ii

#### Yāmale-

abhisaptam aputrañ ca kadaryam kitavam tathā i kriyāhīnam saṭhañ cāpi vāmanam gurunindakām ii jalaraktavikārañ ca varjayen matimān sadā i sadā matsara-samyuktam gurum tantreņa varjayet ii

Vaisampāyana-samhitāyām-

aputro mṛtaputras ca kuṣṭhī ca vāmanas tathā—— 11

The same compendium again says on the authority of Jābāla (quoted by Vidyādharācārya) that the quality of the gurus differ according to the countries in which they are born. According to it the best gurus are found in the countries of Madhyadeśa, Kurukṣetra, Naṭa and Koṅkaṇa (or Naṭa-Koṅkaṇa?), Antarvedi, Pratiṣṭhāna, and Avanti. The Madhyadeśa is Āryāvarta. The gurus of the second quality are found in Gauda, Śālva, Sura (?), Magadha, Kerala, Kośala and Daśārṇa. The worst gurus are those who belong to the countries of Karṇāṭa, Narmadā-Rāṣṭra, Kaceha, Kālinda, Kalamba and Kamboja² (ibid, pp. 10-11); tathā Vidyādharā-cāryadhṛtam Jābālavacanam—

✓ Madhyadeśa-kurukṣetra-natakonkanasambhavāḥ ı Antarvedi-pratiṣṭhānāvantyāś ca gurūttamāḥ ıı

I It is evidently the same name as quoted in the list of the Pingalamato. Through mistake I connected it with Kaveri and took it to mean Kaveri-raştra. It seems to be a different country and probably is meant for Surastra.

2 Konkana, which is amongst the forbidden countries in the Agama list, here is placed in the first rank. Nata-Konkana may however be a mistake for another country. The countries of Kalinda and Kalamba are not known. Kalinda (certainly not Kalinda)

Madhyadeśa, Aryāvarta-

Gaudāh śālvāh surāścaiva māgadhāh kerālās tathā i Kośalāśca daśārņāśca guravah sapta madhyamāh ii Karņāṭa-narmadā-rāṣṭra-kacchatīrodbhavās tathà i Kālindāś ca kalambās ca kambojāś cādhamā maṭāḥ ii

This list was certainly drawn up at a time when the authority of the orthodox Agamas was a little undermined by a rise of the heterodox schools. But it still shows the old tendency according to which the ācāryas of North Indian origin were given the first place.

This throws some unexpected light on the recruitment of Sivācāryas in different countries including ancient Kambuja. We have seen that Hiranyadama came with the new Sastras from a janapada, which was most probably a janapada in India. The family of Sivakaivalya, who was initiated to these Sastras, was long established in Kambuja. The history of this family, recorded in the inscription of Sdok kak Thom is of great interest. The members of this family enjoyed the priesthood of the king through succession since the time of Bhavavarman (middle of the 6th century A.D.). They were Sivacaryas and were guardians of linga established in different places. The succession of the priests was determined according to the matrvamsa "i.e., maternal lineage" (tanmātrvainše yatayas striyo vā jātā vidyā vidyā-vikrama-yuktabhāvāh 1 tad-yājakās syuh.......BEFEO, 1915, p. 62) which implied that the succession was to go to the children of the sisters (bhagineya) or to those of the daughter of the sisters, or the elder brother. There are several cases of such succession recorded in the inscriptions (ibid, p. 54). It is difficult to explain the necessity of such an arrangement. Barth in 1901 thought that such an arrangement was necessary because the royal priests used to take the vow of celebacy and therefore they had to choose their successor from the line of their sisters. But M. Finot (ibid, p. 56) says that it is difficult to accept this explanation as we hear of priests (though of very late times-11th century A.D.) who were married. It is however clear that the intention was to avoid difficulty in finding a successor because when the branch lines are counted the family has an unlimited scope. But what was the necessity of sticking to a particular

seems to be a mistake for Kulinda. Kamboja does not seem to be the ancient country of the Kamboja-Gandhara group. It may be the country of the people called Kam-po-tsa mentioned in the Tibetan sources and located in Assam. These people seem to have been the predecessors of the modern Koch.



family for the selection of priests? The only explanation that occurs to my mind is that according to the Agamas the Sivācāryas had to be chosen preferably from the Brahmanical families of North-Indian origin. Such families were not numerous in Kambuja. The family of Sivakaivalya was probably a rare one and priests had to be chosen from that family and its branch lines, as the members of them alone were fit to be Sivācāryas. In the inscriptions of Kambuja we have several other references to the families of North-Indian origin, of which the members attained the position of royal chaplain. Thus we hear of the royal chaplain Bhatta Divākara who came from the banks of the Kālindī (Yamunā) and was thus an expert in the Vedic sacrifices (Bergaigne, Inscription, I, p. 81 ff.). In an inscription of Angkor vat we are told that the royal priest Sarvajñamuni, who was a special adept in the Saivite rites, came from the (Bergaigne, Inscriptions, etc., lxv, 9, p. 388: Aryyadese samutpannas Sivārādhanatatparah i yo yogenāgatah Kamvudese...). In the same inscription we hear that a descendant of Sarvajñamuni filled the country called Madhyadeśa (here a part of the ancient Kambuja) with Brahmins versed in the Veda and Vedānga (lxv, 22 : cakāra dešam nāmnemām madhyadešam janākulam i vedavedāngavidvipram...). There seems to be a reference here to the immigration of Brahmins from India. In the inscription of Prah vat we find mention of a Brahmin, named Agastya, related to the royal family, who originally came from the Aryadesa (Bergaigne, Inscriptions, etc., xliv, 5, p. 184: atha dvijo'gastya iti pratīto, yo vedavedāngavid āryyadeše...). Such practices were known in India too. The great Cola king Rajendra Cola who built the Rājarāješvara temple at Tanjore is stated to have "appointed Sarvašiva Pandita-Sivācārya as the priest of the temple and have ordered that thenceforth his Sisyas and their Sisyas alone, belonging to the Aryadesa, the Madhyadesa and the Gaudadesa, shall be eligible for the office of chief priest" (South Indian Inscriptions, II, 1, p. 105, wrongly referred to as II, 2, p. 153, in Hindu Iconography, II, 1, pp. 5-6). We also know that the Malla kings of Bhatgaon (Nepal) had Brahmins from Bengal as their priests. These Brahmin families used to come to Bengal from time to time to contract marriages in order to maintain the purity of their family This was however the custom most probably in the pure Sivasādhanā, i.e., Agamānta Saivism. With the heterodox Saiva sects like the Pāsupatas and others the practice was different. Thus in Nepal the priests of Pasupatinātha were recruited only from amongst the South Indian Brahmins (S. Lévi, Le Népal, 1, pp. 364-65).

The influence of the Agamas can also be traced in the Saivite cult practised in Kambuja and Campā. There are ample evidences in the ancient inscriptions to prove that the constructions of the Sivalingas were made according to the prescription of the canon. According to the Agamas the lingas can be of two kinds, the cala, i.e., movable and the acala, i.e., immovable. The cala lingas are again of different types: mṛnmaya, earthen; lohaja, metallic; ratnaja, of precious stones; dāruja, wooden; sailaja, of stone; and kṣaṇika, those made for temporary worship. The lohaja, i.e., metallic lingas are made of 8 metals: gold, silver, copper, bell-metal, iron, lead, brass and tin and the ratnaja ones are made of pearls, coral, vaidūrya, topaz, emerald and bluestone.

The acala or sthāvara lingas are of 10 kinds, Svāyambhuva, Pūrva, Daivata, Gāṇapatya, Āsura, Sura, Ārṣa, Rākṣasa, Mānuṣa and Bāṇa. The Makuṭāgama calls them Sthira lingas and divide them into four classes: Daivika, Ārṣaka, Gāṇapa and Mānuṣa.

In ancient Campa Saivism was the predominant religion and Siva was worshipped mostly in the form of a linga. A linga established by king Bhadravarman towards the close of the 4th or the beginning of the 5th century A.D. became a sort of national deity for the people of Campa. This linga is differently called in the inscriptions-Bhadreśvara, Sambhu-Bhadreśvara, and most probably also as Sriśāna-Bhadreśvara (see R. C. Majumdar, Campā, pp. 177 ff.). The inscriptions do not generally speak of the materials used for the construction of the lingus. Many of them, specially the mukhalingas, were certainly carved from stone. But we have some references to other types of lingas too. An inscription of Po-nagar, dated 965 A.D. (Majumdar, II, no 47), speaks of the gold and stone images of the goddess, i.e., Bhagavatī (haimī and śailamayī pratimā; inser. no 45 : kaladhautadehā), greeted by king Indravarman. This shows that both gold and stone were used in the construction of the images of deities in Campa. Another inscription is more explicit on the point. The Yang Tikuh Inscription of Indravarman I (dated 721 saka=799 A.D.) contains two stanzas which have not been correctly interpreted till

<sup>1</sup> See G. Rao, Hindu Iconography, II (i), pp. 75 fl. The Agamas from which he derives the information are: Suprabhedagama, Kāraņāgama, Kāmikāgama, Makuţāgama and Kiraṇāgama; cf. ibid, II (a), App. B, p. 3 fl.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. ibid, I, Inser. II, 10; XV, B; 26, XVII, B. 26; XVIII. D. 27, B. 24; and II, Inser. LXI, C. 11.

FURTHER NOTES

now. The stanzas in question are (see Majumdar, II, no 23, viii and ix):—

तस्थापि पार्थिवं लिक्क' स्थापितं श्रीन्द्रवर्धाणा।
इन्द्रभद्रेश्वरी नासा ततथाभूत् स एव वा॥ [VIII]
तस्थेव स्थापितन्तेन दर्थं कोशखरस्थिरम्।
समुखखरकोशं हि शाके श्रीययमाद्रिने॥ [IX]

Dr. Majumdar translates the stanzas thus: after Bergaigne and Barth: "Indravarman also installed an earthen linga of the God, which therefore came to be known as Indrabhadreśvara. He also established in the year of the Sakas śaśi yam ādri (721), two treasures for the god, the one composed of movable and immovable property, and the other moveble and with a mouth (priests?)." 1

The last part of the translation is evidently unintelligible. There is no question of "property" in the text and "a movable treasure with a mouth (?)" does not convey any meaning. Kośa here, as in many other cases in these inscriptions, should be taken in the sense of linga-koŝa. Kośa was apparently an outer covering of the linga, and was used probably for decorative purposes. The inscriptions of Campa very often record the gifts of kośa made by the kings to the lingas. These kośas were often golden and decorated with costly gems. The kośas had sometimes faces and kośas with six faces are twice spoken of. We find mention of Urddhvakośa which was most probably a detachable one (see Majumdar, Campā, I, p. 182). If in the present case we take koŝa in the sense of linga-koŝa, the text becomes clear. It should then be translated: "Indravarman also installed an earthen (parthira linga) of bim (the god) which therefore came to be known as Indrabhadreśvara. He also established, in the Saka year śaśi-yama-adri (721), two kośas, one cara, i. e., movable, and the other sthira, i.e., immovable. The movable (cara) kośa had a face (or faces)." The linga was an earthen one (parthiva) which corresponds to the mrumaya-linga mentioned by the Agamas and it had two kośas, of which one was movable and the other, probably a simple cylindrical one, was a fixed one. The cara kośa had a face (or faces) and thus when fixed to the lingas used to convert it into a mukhalinga. The two words cara

<sup>1</sup> Bergaigne, Inscriptions, etc., II, p. 33 et 37—VIII-IX: "Sri-Indravarman a érigé aussi un linga terrestre de ce dieu, qui a été appelé désormais d'un autre nom Indra-bhadresvara. Il a aussi constitué pour lui deux trésors: l'un composé de biens meubles et doué d'eloquence." (les prêtres du temple—Barth).

and sthira naturally remind us of the two types of linga, cala, movable and acala, immovable, also called sthira or sthāvara in the Agamas.

In ancient Kambuja the lingas used to be made of metal as well as precious stones. We have references to lingam haimasobham, suvarnamayalinga, svarnalinga, kaladhauta-linga, sphatikalinga and manilinga. The materials used for the construction of these lingas therefore were chosen in accordance with the prescription of the Agamas. They all were of the type known as calalinga and fell under its subdivisions: sailaja, lohaja and ratnaja.

The four faces of Tumburu.—I have already tried to establish that the four Tantrik texts ŝiraŝcheda, vināŝikha, sammohana and nayottara mentioned in the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom, were authentic Śaivaśāstras, being studied in India in the 7th and 8th centuries A.D. if not earlier. These texts constituted the "vaktracatuṣkam" of the god Tumburu and were introduced in Kambuja for establishing the mystic rites known as devarāja (siddhih......devarājābhikhyā). Tumburu evidently had some sort of connection with the Devarāja cult. Devarāja was a phallic representation (lingarāja) of Siva—and we have already seen that Tumburu was an emanation of Siva himself. The inscription of Sdok Kak Thom tells us that the first temple of Devarāja was built by Jayavarman II (802 A.D.) in his new capital Mahendraparvata (Phnom Kulen), and the royal chaplain Śivakaivalya was appointed priest. The deity was subsequently taken to Hariharālaya where the capital was shifted. Afterwards when the king Paramaŝivaloka (i. e., Yaśovarman: 889-910 A.D.) built his capital at

We have now a definite text before us which supports the identification of Tumburu with Siva. In the Yogavāsiệtha-Rāmāyaņa (Nirvāņa-prakaraņa, I, XVIII, 23-26), compiled before the 9th century A.D. the following verses:

ity aşţaiśvarya-yuktās tā mātaro raudra-eeşţitāh | kadācinmilitā vyomni sarvāh kenāpi hetunā || utsavam paramam cakruh paramārthaprakāšakam | vāmasrotogatā etās Tumburum Rudram āśritāh || pūjayitvā jagatpūjyau devau Tumburu-Bhairavau | vicitrārthāh kathāš cakrur-madirā-madatogitāh ||

These things are spoken of the eight mātṛkās who were one day out for amusement. They are here characterised as the followers of the left current (vāmasrotogatā) and related to Rudra who is Tumburu, i.e., the Tumburu aspect of Rudra (Tumburum Rudram). The eight-matṛkās are here made to worship the two gods Tumburu and Bhairava. This passage clearly mentions Tumburu as an aspect of Rudra. It should also be noted that Siva is often referred to in the inscriptions of Kambuja as Caturānana, Caturmukha, etc. Cf. Bergaigne, Inscriptions, etc., II, no LXIV (p. 377); no XLIV (p. 183); no LV (p. 213).

Yosodharapura (Angkor Thom) he brought the deity; to the new capital and placed him in the temple of Vnam kāntāl (lit. the central mount, which was built in the centre of the city for receiving the deity.

This central edifice erected by Yasovarman was for a long time believed to be the Bayon which is situated just in the centre of Angkor. But M. Finot in his recent studies (Etudes Asiatiques, Vol. I, p. 245 ff.) has tried to show that the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom has told a lie. A detailed examination of the sculpture of Bayon has led M. Finot to believe that Bayon could not have been originally a Saiva temple. He thinks that the newly built capital of Yasovarman was not placed under the protection of the linga Devaraja, the national deity of Kambuja, but under that of the Bodhisattva Avalokiteśvara. Necessarily he was led to conclude that Angkor Thom and Bayon were not built by king Yasovarman, as the inscription would have us believe, because he was a Saiva, but by his predecessor Jayavarman II who was a Mahāyānist. Yaśovarman according to him played the part of a vandal and changed Bayon into a sanctuary of the linga. The principal reason for starting this theory was that the sculpture of Bayon is almost entirely Buddhist. But it might be argued that the temple was begun as a Buddhist one and finished as a Saiva one. But to this objection M. Finot answers that even in several niches of the towers the central figures were originally those of Buddha. They were later on deliberately destroyed and replaced by linga. Another serious difficulty remained to be explained away. Each tower of Bayon is decorated with four colossal faces turning towards the four cardinal points. In 1911 M. Finot interpreted them as the architectural translation of a caturmukhalinga. He, however, gives up that explanation in the light of later researches and now thinks that they represent the faces of the Avalokitesvara. He is aware of the fact that no such architectural representation of Avalokitesvara is at present available but he still supposes that the architect wanted to represent Avalokitesvara as looking in the four directions and thus protecting the city on all sides. M. Finot would therefore conclude that the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom has distorted the facts. Bayon was not originally a Saiva temple and Yasovarman, who was a staunch Saiva, could not be its founder. It was founded in the time of Jayavarman II (802-869 A.D.) who was a Buddhist king.

But M. Philippe Stern in his study on the evolution of the Khmer Art (Le Bayon d'Angkor et l'Evolution de l'Art Khmer, 1927) has questioned the hitherto admitted chronology of the monuments of Angkor on grounds of style. According to him, Bayon did not exist in the time of

Yasovarman. Therefore, the central mount (Vnam kantāl) of Yasovarman has to be searched for elsewhere. He thinks that it should be identified with the Phimānakas which, in all appearance, occupied the central position in the old city. The city developed in course of subsequent centuries and its centre was naturally removed. According to the chronology proposed by him, Bayon could not have been built before the time of Udayādityavarman II (1049-1052 A.D.) or that of his predecessor Sūryavarman I (1002-1049 A.D.). The outer walls of the city would belong to this period.

But M. Coedès in a recent study (BEFEO, XXVIII, pp. 81 ff.) has tried to prove that Bayon was built still later during the reign of Jayavarman VII (1182-1201 A.D.). According to him the outer walls of Angkor Thom and some other buildings, which are of the style of Bayon, were constructed in the same period. Thus both M. Stern and Coedès agree in placing Bayon and the outer walls of the city in the same epoch though they do not assign the same date to their construction. Both of them disbelieve the testimony of the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom which clearly attributes the foundation of Yasodharapura (i.e., Angkor Thom) and Vnam Kantāl, "the central mount," to Yasovarman.

This inscription, we have already seen, was composed in Saka 974 (=1052 A.D.). The date of its composition therefore falls in the period to which M. Stern would attribute the construction of Bayon. It seems strange that a contemporary inscription would mean by \*Vnam\* Kantāl\* any other edifice except the Bayon. What is possible is that the traditional history of religious foundations, which it records, is confused. Its attribution of the foundation of Bayon to Yasovarman may therefore be easily questioned but Bayon was certainly considered as a sufficiently old edifice in the middle of the 11th century for affording scope for confusion about its real founder to the author of the inscription.

According to M. Coedès and M. Stern, the construction of Bayon and the outer walls of the city would fall in the same period. The towers of Bayon and those of the five city-gates are all decorated with four colossal faces. What do these four colossal faces represent? Are they the representations of the faces of Avalokitesvara, as M. Finot thinks? Even admitting that Jayavarman II has not directly, but through his tradition, influenced the construction of Bayon, it is difficult to believe with M. Finot that he was a Buddhist king. M. Finot takes him to be a Buddhist—firstly, because he came from Java (or Srivijaya) which was a great centre of Mahāyāna Buddhism in this period and—secondly, because he

founded the city of Amarendrapura, formerly identified with the ruins of Bantay Chmar which is completely a Buddhist city to judge from the sculptures. But the identification of Amarendrapura with Bantay Chmar has been reasonably questioned by M. Stern (loc. cit.). We should also bear in mind that the posthumous name of Jayavarman II is Paramesvara (the Supreme Lord-Siva). The cities which he built-Mahendraparvata, Hariharalaya and Amarendrapura are all connected with the names of Siva. The last name seems to be only a different form of Devaraja. The priest whom he chose as his chaplain, Sivakaivalya, was a Saiva and came from a Saiva family. It was again he who authorised Hiranyadama to introduce the texts of Saivagama along with the Saiva cult of Devaraja into Kambuja. He really made it the religion of the state, erected its temples and granted lands to the priestly family for its maintenance. Besides it would be wrong to say that the sculptures of Bayon have no trace of Saivism. An important bas-relief of the first gallery of Bayon (see Comaille, Guides aux Ruines d'Angkor, p. 135, n. 36) represents three temples in one row, of which the towers bear tridents (trisula) and the deity in the centre is a Sivalinga. In the face of these facts, it is difficult to admit that Jayavarman II was a Buddhist king and that he introduced Mahāyāna from Srīvijaya into Kambuja. There is no reason to suppose that the four Tantrik texts brought by Hiranyadama had anything to do with Mahāyāna. Jayavarman II was a Saiva. If any one of the edifices (for example Bantay Chmar, Bayon, etc.), containing some Buddhist sculptures can even be proved to have been constructed in the time of Jayavarman II, the only possible explanation is either that he was a tolerant king and allowed Mahāyāna to flourish in the country, or that he had employed artists who had come from the neighbouring territory of Srīvijaya and had Mahāyānist training. It will be wrong to suppose that Mahāyāna Buddhism of the 8th-9th century \.D. was very much antagonistic to Tantrik Saivism. Though the sculpture of the temples partly seem to be Mahayanist, the indwelling deity was no doubt Siva.

It seems difficult to admit that Bayon was not originally a Saiva temple. The state religion of Kambuja was always the cult of Devarāja. A temple like Bayon, which is situated just in the centre of the city, could

<sup>1</sup> The question of the date and position of the Bayon has become more complicated after the recent trial excavations made by MM. Coodès and Goloubew at Angkor (Annual Bibliography of Indian Archwology, 1932, p. 40). I do not pretend to hold to the suggestion which has occurred to me in regard to the date and position of the temple in this article. It is, I hope, clear from the article that my main contention bears on the significance of the four colossal faces over the towers and gateways.

not therefore have been meant for any other deity except Devaraja. If in some of the niches of the towers of Bayon the figures of Buddha have been deliberately destroyed and substituted by linga we must attribute that work of vandalism to a period when the king was a very orthodox one and did not even tolerate the sculptural representation of Buddha in the temple of Devarāja, as his predecessors used to do. It is therefore necessary to go back to the older theory of M. Finot that the four faces of the towers of Bayon (as well as those of the towers of the city gates) are the sculptural r-presentation of the four faces of Siva. Devarāja was in all probability a mukhalinga and it was quite natural that the towers of its temple and those of the city-gates constructed in the same period would bear the mukhalinga symbol. This explanation seems to have a strong support in the inscription of Sdok Kak Thom which says that the four sastras which prescribed the cult of Devaraja constituted the four faces of the Tumburu. It may not be therefore improbable that the four colossal faces on the towers are architectural translation of the four faces of Tumburu, Tumvuror vaktracatuşkam, mentioned in the inscription, because, it is through those four faces that the god originally communicated the four fundamental texts which prescribed the religious rites of the king and his people. They are the symbols of the different amnayas of the Saivite canon.

#### THE SANDHĀBHĀŞĀ AND SANDHĀVACANA

#### III

Prof. Vidhušekhar Šāstrī in an article published in the Indian Historical Quarterly (1928, pp. 287ff.) has tried to determine the exact meaning of the expression Sandhābhāṣā. He has collected a large number of facts which justifies us in rejecting the old interpretation suggested by Mahāmahopādhyāya H. P. Šāstrī as "the twilight language" (āloāndhārī bhāṣā). There can be no doubt that the proper reading of the expression is Sandhābhāṣā, and not Sandhyā-bhāṣā, though it occurs in a large number of badly copied Nepalese manuscripts. The large number of texts quoted by Prof. Vidhušekhar Sāstrī has enabled him to interpret it as ābhiprāyika vacana or neyārtha vacana, i.e., "intentional speech." This interpretation is in agreement with the Chinese translation of the word as "secret, hidden," and thus "that of which the sense is to be made clear" (=neyārtha). Ābhiprāyika means that "it is intended to imply or suggest something different from what is expressed by the words." (V. S. Sāstrī, loc. cit., pp. 293-294.)

I leave it undecided for the present whether the expression Sandhāvacana was used in the ancient texts like the Saddharma-pundarīka to emphasise on any deeper meaning of the particular texts in connection of which it is used. But there is no doubt that it was used to mean a symbolical language to signify "something different from what is expressed by the words" in the later Buddhist texts belonging to the Vajrayāna and the Sahajayāna. It is evident even from the Caryīcaryavinišcaya published by H. P. Sāstri. The expressions like "nagara bāhire dombī tohori kudiā" (p. 19), "āliē kāliē vāļa rundhelā" (p. 14), "Kakkolapriyaholamelakatayānanda sphurat-kundarāh | Sadyah šodhita šālilālitākarāh kāliājarāš cakrinah | " (comm. p. 33), etc., cannot convey any meaning, if interpreted literally. We have, therefore, to assume that there is some hidden meaning in them.

The Hevajratantra, a canonical text of the Vajrayāna, not yet much studied, contains a chapter on the Sandhābhāṣā. It gives the clues to the interpretation of many symbolical words (Sandhāvacana) used in the Vajrayāna and Sahajayāna literature. It is difficult to determine the age of the Hevajratantra at present but it must have been compiled before the

beginning of the eleventh century A.D., when it was translated into Chinese by Fa-hn (Tokio edition, XXVII, 3). There is also a Tibetan translation of the text. The great importance of the text in the Vajrayāna literature may prove that it probably belonged to the very early days of the Vajrayāna (7th-8th centuries A.D.).

The 13th Chapter 1 of the Hevajra deals with the Sandhābhāṣā—Hevajra-sarvatantranidāna-sandhābhāṣā nāma paṭalaḥ). In this chapter Sandhābhāṣā is characterised as the mahāsamaya (= Chinese ta san-mei-ye, great Samaya) of the yogīs, and also as "the great language" (mahābhāṣām) and is "full of the meaning of doctrines" (Samaya-sanketa vistaram). The Chinese translation of the text is a faithful one. The word Sandhābhāṣā is rendered as fang pien shuo. Fang-pien means āupāyikam (cf. Mahāvyutpatti, Sakaki, 6339). Rosenberg (Vocabulary, p. 222) interprets fang pien shuo as "aupacārīkah. Fang-pien is used here as an equivalent of Samaya, i.e., special doctrine of the school represented by the Hevajratantra. The doctrine is summarised in one stanza which occurs in the beginning of the lantra for explaining the word Hevajra—

Hekāreņa mahākaruņā vajram prajnā ca bhaṇyate | Prajnopāyātmakam tantram tanme nigaditam śrọu |

This is the fundamental doctrine of the Vajrayāna as has been explained in such works as the Prajňopāyaviniścaya-siddhi of Anangavajra, recently published by Dr. B. Bhattacharyya in the Gaekwad's Oriental Series.

The passage which deals with the Sandhābhāṣā has been established from a collation of the three different manuscripts, and the Chinese translation:—

[ D, fol. 9a-9b; P, 26b-27b]

भगवात्राष्ट्र-

बचेऽहं वश्रममाँऽयं यस्त्रमक्षेतसा । सन्धामापं महाभापं समयस्रदेतविकारं ॥

This corresponds to the 3rd Chapter of the 2nd Kalpa of the Sanskrit text. The Sanskrit MSS, of the text are divided into two Kalpas, of 10 chapters each. In Chinese translation, however, the numbering of the chapters is continuous; thus the 3rd Chapter of Kalpa II—Chapter 13: I have consulted three MSS, of the Hevajratantra,—the MS, in the Nepal Darbar Library (D), that in the possession of Prof. G. Tucci who kindly lent it to me (T) and the last one in my possession (P).



मदनं मदा बले मांसं मलयूजं मीलनं तथा। गतिखेट: 1 शव: 2 श्राव: " अख्याभरणं " निरंग्रकं " ॥ आगति: प्रेचणं प्रोक्तं क्रपीटं ° डमहकं 7 मतं। चभव्यं दुई रं \* भव्यं कालिखरं मतं u अस्पर्भ डिव्डिमं " प्रोक्तं कपालं पद्मभाञ्चनं। भक्तं व्यक्तिकरं चीधं व्यवनं मालतीश्वनं ॥ गृथं चतुस्ममं प्रीतं मृवं कल्दिका सता:। खयम् सिडकं जीयं युकं कर्रकं मतं॥ महामांसमालिजं प्रीतः हीन्द्रिययोगं कुन्दर 10। वर्च वीलमिति 11 ख्यातं पद्म ककोलकं 19 मतं॥ कुलं पञ्चविधं ख्यातं वर्णभेदिन भेदितं। सन्धाभाषा एता स्य: बुढाय पश्च कीखिका:॥ डोम्बी वजकुली ख्याता नटी पद्मकुली तथा। अपची 13 रवकुली चैव दिजा ताथागती 1 मता a रज ही कर्षकुली चैव एता सुद्रा: सुसिडिदा:। चासा ग्रकं भवेत वर्व पुत्रधिला पिवेत वर्ती ॥ वश्राभेमहासल यनाया कथितं लयि। ततसब्बें सादरं याचां सन्धाभाषं महत्र तं॥ योऽभिषिकोऽत देवजे न वदेत संघाभाषया। ममग्रविद्योद्धनं तस्य जायते नात संगय: ॥ इत्यपट्टव चौरैय यहञ्चल विबुद्धोऽपि। सिवतेऽसी वदि बुढोऽपि संधाभाषं न भाषयेत्॥ स्वसमयविटी प्राप्य यदि न भाषयेदिटं वच:। तदाचीभं प्रकुर्वन्त योगिन्य यतुष्पीठनाः ॥ हेवचे सर्वतनानिदानसंघाभाषा नाम पटलः वतीयः 10 ।

<sup>•</sup> P, निरतसक: • D, कपीनं, T, कपीटं, P, कपीटां.

D, इसदका, T, डमदकं, P, डमदक:. T, दुन्दरं, P, दुन्दुरं, D, कालिजलं.

D, डिखमं, T, दिखिमं, P, तिखिम.
 T, कुंदरी.
 T, बोलकं;

भ कर्जाकलक. 19 D, अपनी, T, चन्डाली, P, अपनि. 18 D, ताथागती, P, तथागता.

<sup>15</sup> Instand of the reading want (sandhā) we have saindhyā or sandhyā in all the texts.

I have, however, accepted the corrected reading of the word.

The words used in the Sandhābhāṣā are according to the preceding text the following 1:—

madana (Ch. mo-nien) = madya; Ch. kuo she. "fruit-provision"? vala² (Ch. mi-lo) = māṃsa; Ch. keou tchao "search-extract"? kheṭa (Ch. k'o-tcha) = gati; Ch. kiu, "to go." prekṣaṇa (Ch. pi-li-k'o-nan) = āgati; Ch. lai, "to come." asthyābharaṇa (Ch. a-sa-tie-p'o-lo-nan)

= niramśuka; Ch. tchou pao, "ratna"?

damaruka (Ch. man-nou-lou?)=kṛpṛṭa; Ch. kou-yin, "drum."

durdura (Ch. nou-lo-nou-lo)=abhavya; Ch. pouo to jen,

a man of bad qualities.

kālinjara (Ch. ko-leng-jo-lo) = bhavya; Ch. shen jen, "good man." diņdima (Ch. ning-ni-mon) = asparša; Ch. won tch'on, "not-strike." kapāla (Ch. kie-po-lo) = padmabhājana; Ch. lien-hona-k'i, "lotus-vase." tṛptikara (Ch. ti-wang ?-po-to) = bhakta; Ch yin-che, "food." mālatīndhana (Ch. mo-lo-ting = vyānjana; Ch. ts'ai-che,

" vegetable food."

gūtha (Ch. yuan-touo) = catussama; Ch. sseu p'ing teng, "four-equal."
mūtra (Ch. mou-to-lo) = kasturikā; Ch. miao-hiang, "good-smell."
silhaka (Ch. si-lo-kan) = svayambhū; Ch. tseu-jen-sheng, "self-born."
šūkra (Ch. shou-kie-lo) = karpūraka; Ch. tsao-tso, "create-do"?
mahāmāmsa (Ch. mouo-so) = ālija?; Ch. pao-she, "white colour."
Ch. yu³ = Ch. siang-ying, "yoga, yukta."

bola (Ch. mono-lo-kan) = vajra; Ch. kin kang, "vajra.
kakkolaka (Ch. kon-lo-kan) = padma; Ch. lien hona, "lotus."
[kulam (Ch. kon-lien) = Ch. pon-lei, "class."
varna (Ch. pona-lo-na) = Ch. yn fen pie won fen pie, i.e. "bhedābheda"].4
dombi (Ch. non-mi) = Vajrakuli; Ch. kin kang pon, "vajra class."
nati (Ch. na-ti) = Padmakuli; Ch. lien hona pon, "padma class."
can ļāli (Ch. tsan-na-lii) = Ratnakuli; Ch. pao-pon, "ratna class."
dvijā (Ch. nei-jo-to?) = Tathagati; Ch. jon lai pon, "tathāgata class."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Chinese transcription of the words are given within brackets. The Chinese translation of the word is given at the end. For the Chinese translation see Tok., XXVII, 3, p. 74\*, 3-10.

<sup>2</sup> The Chinese translation omits two words of the original malayajam milanam and savaly śrāvaly.

This seems to be an incomplete and faulty transcription of the original kunduru.

<sup>4</sup> The translator evidently has made a confusion here. The text simply means that there are five classes differentiated by the colours.



rajakī (Ch. lan-jo-kin) = Karmakulī ; Ch. kie-mo-pou, "karma elass." [Mudrā (Ch. mu-to-lo) =? miao tcheng; 1 Ch. "will achieve i.e.

susiddhidāh."]

These are not, however, all the words of the Sandhāvacana class, as we have many others mentioned in different places either in the commentaries on the Dohās or in the Hevajratantra. I will only mention a few of them here—

āli, kāli—these two words literally mean "vowels" and "consonants." See Bacot, La grammaire de Thonmi Sambhota, p. 1; āli kāli candra sūrya prajňopāya—Hevajra (Chap. I); lokajňānena ...lokābhāsena ca—Caryācaryaviniścaya (com., p. 15).

lalanā, rasanā, avadhūti—these are the names of the three principal of the thirty-two arteries—lalanā prajūāsabhāvena rasanopāyasaṃsthitā | avadhūti madhyadeše tu grāhyagrāhakavarjitā || Hevajra (Ch. I).

Some of these technical words—bodhicitta, samarasa, karin, giri, evamkāra, etc., have been explained by M. Shahidullah with the help of the commentary in his Les Chants Mystiques (Paris, 1928, pp. 9-10).

In the chapter (paṭala) which follows the preceding one (Pindārthanāma paṭalaḥ, Chap. 4 of Part II of our MSS. of the Hevajra=Chap. 14 of the Chinese translation, Tokio, XXVII, 3, p. 74a) the Lord explains some doctrines in the Sandhābhāṣā. The passage is faithfully transcribed in the Chinese translation (ibid, p. 75a, 11-13). We will first give the original text as collected from the three different manuscripts already mentioned and then the Chinese transcription, as given in the translation:—

को बदर ठिय बीला सुक्षि कि कोला।

घन कि विड़ हो बाजद करणे कि घर न रोला॥

तिह वल खजर गाढ़े सम्मणा पिजियर।

हले का लिसर पणिषद दृह् क विज्ञियर॥

घरसम कस्तुरि सिझा कर्प्र लादयर।

सालद इस्वन सालितिह भक खादयर॥

पेइया खेट करले सुझासुझ य माणियद।

निरंस्य घड चड़वियद जसरावि पणियर।

सलयन कुन्दुर वटद डिज्डिम तहि या विजयद॥

D, कब्रदल, T, कोब्रियरे; D, किपिटि, P, किपिट; D, वार्जर; T, वार्जर; P, वेजर;
 D, भदन लोला; T, भनरोला: D,P, बल; T, बलु, Chinese चल; T, खोजर; D,P,

<sup>1</sup> Miao-tcheng in the Chinese text is wrongly taken as an equivalent of the word mudrā. The original text means that the five mudrās—dombī, naṭī, caṇḍālī, drijā and rajakī conduce to perfect siddhi.

Chinese transcription (p. 74a, 17-20).

kaI-lo-yi-li ch'e-a moū-lô mou-ni-li kô-koū-lo | kiu ki-pi-cha hoū wei-jo-yi kie-lou-ni-ki a-yi-loū-lô || ta-hi tso-lo k'ie-jo-yi ngô-ch'e mo-ye-nā pi-jo-a-yi | ho-lei kô-leng-jo-lo po-ni-a-yi nci-nou-lou wei-ent-a-yi || tso-wu-san-mo kie-cheu-li si-lo + hô kie-pou-lou lô-yi-a-yi || mô-lo-yi yin-ta-na so-lei ta-hi p'o-lou hô-yi-a-yi || pi+leng-kie-na k'ie-cha k'ie-leng-ti shou-ta nou jo-ni-a-yi || ni-lien-shou ying-ye tso-nā-wei-a-yi

tan-hi ji-sa-lô p'ou-a-wei pc-ni-a-yi p mc-lei-yi-ji kong-nou-lou wei-cha-yi ning-ni-mo to-hing wei-jo-a-yi p

Most of the words in the above passage belong to the Sandhābhāṣā. The other words are in their Apabraṃśa forms—thia=to stay, from sthā; bājjai "to beat (the drum) "from vādya; khajjai "to eat "from khāda; pijiai "to drink" from piva; paṇiai, "to bow into "from pra-ṇama; bajjiai "to abandon "from varja; laiai "to take"; khaiai, karante, māṇiai, cailabiai, paṇiai, baṭai, etc., also are to be explained as Apabhraṃśa forms which we find in the Dohās. The Sandhāvacana in the passage are:—

kakkola = padma "lotus."

kibida from kṛpīṭa = damaruka, i.e., "drum."

bala = māṃsa, "meat."

maane from madana = madya, "wine."

पितिषद ; T, पिळाइ ; D, इरे ; D, कालिञ्चल ; D, पण्यद ; P, T, दुन्दुर ; D, वज न षड ; P, विजयद ; D, omits कर्प्र ; T, कर्प्रक ; P, इत्रद ; T, इंग्रद ; P, लाइषद, D, मालती इत्थन ; D, सारितिष्ठ ; T, सालिश्वतिष्ठ ; P, सालिं तिष्ठ ; D, प्रखन ; भेखन ; P, प्रखन ; Ch. प्रेडल ; D, खेरेझ ; T, खह ; P, खेट ; D, T. ग्रहाग्रह ; D, न मनेद ; T, न मुण्यिद ; P, न मासिषद ; D, निरंग्रक ; P, निरंग्रह ; D, प्रम, Ch, चढ़ावीतद ; P, चल्रगीसद ; P, चड़ावितः ; D, जसनािपणीयव ; T, जसरावपरिषद ; P, चसरिव ; D, मलजे ; T, मल्याजं; D, बाटद ; P, वाहेद , D, सिंह, T, जिंह, व कुन्नद , T, वार्ज्यद , P, वजीनद ।

1 nei, nou, na, ning, ni stand for ancient ndei, ndou, nda, etc., cul for ji; there is often confusion between mo and wei, for the Chinese characters are similar. The vowels are lengthened according to the indication in Chinese. The combination of two consonants has been represented by the plus sign.



kālinjara = bhavya duddura = abhavya caiisama from catussama = qūtha silha from silhaka = svayambhū karppūra = śukra mālai indhana = vyahjana prenkhana = agati kheta = gati niramsua = asthyābharana malayaja = milana "union," this word, as we have seen is The meaning omitted in the Chinese translation. is the same as that of kunduru which dvīndriyasamyoga. dindima = asparŝa.

I do not, however, pretend to say that by the substitution of these equivalents we can arrive at a clear meaning; the meaning will still remain obscure. That obscurity can be removed only when the text will be interpreted in the light of the Vajrayāna doctrines. Unfortunately our knowledge of the Vajrayāna is still very meagre.

## ON THE SADHANAMÁLÁ

The present volume which forms the Tome XLI of the Gaekwad's Oriental Series, contains the remaining Sādhanas, 142 in number (Nos. 171-312). Dr. Bhattacharyya is to be congratulated on the successful completion of his edition of the Sādhanamālā. Most of these Sādhanas are lying scattered in Tibetan translation in the Bstan hgyur and the worth of the edition would have been certainly enhanced if they had been compared for settling the text. But still our indebtedness to the editor is not minimised in the least, for he is doing the work of a pioneer in this field. The greatest importance of these texts is iconographical and ritualistic. Dr. Bhattacharyya in his Indian Buddhist Iconography has done justice to the iconographical aspect of the work, but the ritualistic aspect still remains to be studied.

In a learned introduction the editor has discussed some of the most important problems of Buddhist Tantras bearing on the present text. This introduction deals with: (1) Magic in ancient India in which he finds the origin of the Tantras; (2) Tantras in which he gives a general description of the Hindu and Buddhist Tantras; (3) Origin and development of Vajrayāna; (4) Chronology of the Vajrayāna; (5) Leading tenets of Vajrayāna; (6) Aims and objects of the Tantras; (7) Authors of the Sādhanas; (8) Vajrayāna deities; (9) Iconography. Our remarks will be confined to the most important of these sections, viz., 3, 4 and 7, which deal with the history of the Vajrayāna.

It is not true to say (p. vi) that Buddha gave instruction on Mudrā, Maṇḍala and Tantra. The oldest images of Buddha, of course, represent him with Mudrā but they go back only to the 1st and 2nd centuries A.D. There is nothing to support the statement that Buddha incorporated Tantric practices (p. xvii) into his system of religion. There is no work on dhāraṇīs translated into Chinese "early at the beginning of the Christian era." The oldest translation of something like a dhāraṇī, which I know of, belongs to the beginning of the 3rd century A.D. (Nanjio, Catalogue 478 is lost. Another dhāraṇī is said to have been translated between 223 and 253 A.D. by an Indo-Scythian monk, Tehe Kien (Nanjio, No. 355 Anantamuhha-sādhakadhāraṇī?). But there is an interval of 100 years between these two translations and the translation of dhāraṇīs, which took place towards the end of the 4th century A.D. Both the translations are registered for the first time in the catalogues of the 6th century A.D.,

and therefore doubts can be easily raised about their authenticity; it can be, however, safely asserted that the genuine translations of dhāraṇīs go back to the end of the 4th and the beginning of the 5th century A.D. It may be pointed out in this connection that the chapter on dhāraṇī in the Lankāvatārasūtra is not found in its first Chinese translation made by Guṇabhadra in 443 A.D. but occurs only in its later Chinese translations.

Some interpretations of the Vajrayāna doctrines given in § 3 cannot be naïvely accepted at the present state of our knowledge about Vajrayāna. On p. xxii Dr. Bhattacharyya says,—"Vajrayānists went beyond due limits in their spite against the strict rules of morality, and they violated all of them and plunged headlong into the worst immorality and sin." This conclusion is based on a literal interpretation of some of the verses of the Prajūopāyaviniścayasiddhi of Anangavajra, edited by Dr. Bhattacharyya himself. The verses in question are the following:

प्रज्ञापारिमता सेव्या सर्था मुक्तिकांचिमि:।
परमार्थे स्थिता ग्रहा संब्रत्या तनुधारिणी ॥२२॥
ललनारूपमास्थाय सर्व्यतेव व्यवस्थिता।
प्रतोऽये वजनायेन प्रोक्ता वास्तार्थसभवा॥२३॥
वाद्यणादिकुलोत्पन्ना सुद्रां वे चन्यजीहवा।
दुःशीला पर[भाव्यां?] च विक्रता विकला तथा॥२४॥
जनियती समारं च सपुती भागिनियका।
कामयन् तस्त्रयोगन लघु सिध्येत साधकः॥३५ [р.22].

Dr. Bhattacharyya translates it as "without Prajnaparamita emancipation is not possible, and Prajnaparamita resides in every woman. Emancipation can only be obtained by coming in contact with any woman, whether of low origin and high, or whether mother, or sister, or other near relations."

It is not unknown to Dr. Bhattacharyya that every mysticism is garbed in language which is also mystic, and even many verses of the Prajñopāyavinišcayasiddhi are unintelligible if interpreted literally. Every mystic school has got its traditions, of which only the teachers (gurus) are in possession of the secret. But a critical observer cannot remain satisfied with the explanation of a modern teacher of the sect (and it is also difficult to find one in Nepal who is ready to divulge the secret to an outsider). The next alternative is to fall back on the literature of the sect. But our knowledge of the Vajrayāna is too limited to give us free scope in elucidating its doctrines. However the Hevajratantra, a work of canonical importance to the Vajrayānists and older than 693 A.D. according to

Dr. Bhattacharyya himself (p. xliii), contains many a clue to the interpretation of the Vajrayāna doctrines. Let us try to see how the terms जना, सुद्रा, etc., on which the interpretation of the verses depend, are explained in this Tantra. In the very opening chapter of the text called Vajrakulapaṭala we find a description of the 32 nādīs (arteries) of which three are the principal, viz., lalanā, rasanā and avadhūtī, corresponding to the idā, pingalā and suṣumnā of the Hindu Haṭhayogins. The nature of these three nādīs is further defined in the same chapter as:

## खलना प्रजासभावेन रसनीपायसंस्थिता। भवधुती मध्यदेशे तु याद्ययाहकवर्ज्जिता॥

The nature of lalanā is, therefore, Prajñā and this Prajñā becomes an active force when lalanā is purified. I think it is in this light that we have to interpret the first two of the verses quoted where Prajñāpāramitā is said to be existing in the forms of lalanā (lalanārūpam āsthāya...). What is then Brāhmaṇādikulotpannā mudrā? Dr. Bhattacharyya knows (p. lx) that there are five kulas (families) representing the five dhyānī Buddhas—Akṣobhya, Vairocana, Amitābha, Ratnasambhava and Amoghasiddhi. For further explanation we have to refer to the 5th chapter, Tattvapaṭala, of the Hevajratantra where the five mudrās, Dombī, Naṭī, Rajakī, Brāhmaṇī and Caṇḍālī are said to be belonging to the five kulas.

मुद्रा पच कुलानीति कथ्यते मोचहेत्नां।
वयं मुद्रातेऽनेनीति मुद्रा तैनाभिधीयते॥
वयं पद्मं तथा कर्यं तथागत रवमेव च।
कुलानि पचविधाहरूनमानि महाक्षप॥
वयं डोम्ब भवेत् मुद्रा पद्मंनटो तथेव च।
कर्यं रजकौ समाख्याता ब्राह्मचौ च तथागता॥
रवच्छालौ भ्रात ?) पचमुद्रा विनिक्षिताः।...
कुलानां पचमूतानां पचस्कम्बस्विष्णां।
कुल्यते गम्यतेऽनेनीत कुलमित्यभिधीयते॥
1

The Chinese translation of these verses may be compared, because it is explanatory (Tokio ed., XXVII, 3, p. 68b). "The mudras are of five classes and they will be now described for the cause of emancipation (moksa). They are called mudra because they are the secret of the vajra. Vajra, Padma, Karma Tathāgata, and Ratna, these are the five classes (of mudra). Vajra is nu-mi (Dombi)-mudra, Padma is the dancing girl (-nafi) mudra, Karma is the mistress of dyeing (-rajaki) mudra, Tathāgatā is the pure woman (Brāhmani) and Ratna is the chen-na-li (i.e., Candāli) mudra. The five classes of mudrā are thus determined......They are of five classes as they form the very nature of the five skandhas (?). They are called classes (kula, Ch. pu) because the bodies (kāya) are produced from them."

It follows from this that the five mudrās originating from the kulas beginning with Brāhmaṇā (Brāhmaṇādikulodbhūtām) are respectively: Brāhmaṇā=Tathāgatā, Caṇḍālī=Ratna, Dombī=Vajra, Rajakī=Karma, and Naṭī=Padma. What is Mudrā? Mudrā is explained in the same chapter of the Hevajra as करकोटो भवेन्छा अंगुला नीटनं तथा; these are, therefore, different gestures of the fingers by which the Yogin pretends to evoke the Vajra, i.e., Prajñā (Vajram mudryate anena....). Mudrā is therefore not a woman.

The same chapter of the Hevajra explains the different words जनविनी', etc., thus:

जननी भण्यते प्रजा जनयति यसाज्यगजनं। भगिनोति तथा प्रजा विभागं दर्शयेद् यतः।..... गुणस्य दृहणा प्रजा दृष्टिता च निगद्यते॥ भे

Therefore जनवियो, खसा, etc., are different aspects of the Prajua which the Yogin is trying to awaken during the process of his Yoga.

But I do not want to be dogmatic. I have entered into this discussion simply to point out the enormous difficulties which we have to face in interpreting the doctrines of the mystic schools. Their very oldest traditions do not allow us to attribute obscenities to their practices. I do not, however, pretend to say that these sects always preserved a pure standard of morality and that in later times their followers did not indulge in licence by wrong interpretation of their tenets.

On pp. xxxvii-xxxix while discussing the Pithas of Tāntric culture Dr. Bhattacharyya had naturally to refer to Uddiyāna. It is regrettable that he still persists in placing Uddiyāna in Eastern India, sometimes in Orissa and sometimes in Assam, inspite of adverse criticisms (Finot in BEFEO and Shahidullah, Les chants mystiques, 1928, p. 22n). We must note that there are two distinct series of names in Tibetan (i) O-rgyan, U-rgyan, O-di-ya-na and (ii) O-di, O-di-vi-ŝa (see Tāranāth and Pag sam jon zang). The first series of names is connected with Indrabhūti whereas the second series has nothing to do with him. The first presupposes the forms: Odiyāna and Uddiyāna both of which are found as genuine

<sup>1</sup> The Chinese translation (loc. cit.) of the verse is as follows: "The great Prajnā is like mother because it gives birth to all the nature. It is like sister because it gives insight into the division (the diversity of the nature)......It is like daughter because it produces all the qualities (guna)."

For another explanation of these terms notation, etc., see Dākārņava (ed. H. P. Sāstrī), p. 138. The nādīs are the seats of each of the 27 Yoginis; mātā ca bhaginī putrī bhāgineyī ca svasīkā i bāndhavī pitubhimātā (? piturvimātā) mātulasya tu bhāryakā—are only the names of some of these yoginīs.

forms in the Sanskrit texts whereas the second falls back on Odi and Odiviša, i.e., Odra and Audravisaya (=Orissa). The latter is generally transcribed by the Chinese writers as Wu-tch'a, i.e., Uda (the phonetic value of tch'a=da) and the former sometimes as Yue-ti-yen (i.e., U-ti-yana). Wu-tch'ang is the older form and is based on \*U-diang (the phonetic value of tcha'ng=dang) which was wrongly translated as "garden" and hence restored as Udyāna. Hiuan tsang transcribes the name as Wu-tch'ang-na, i.e., U-diang-na. I do not know if M. Lévi has identified this country with Kasgarh (and Dr. Bhattacharyya does not give any reference) but on the contrary M. Lévi has located it in the Swat Valley (J. As.— Le catalogue géographique des Yakṣa, pp. 105-112) as all the available sources of information would indicate. M. Lévi has adduced good grounds for this identification and it will suffice to reproduce some of them here.

(1) All the Chinese sources (Fa hien, Hiuan tsang, etc.) locate Uddiyāna in the Swat Valley. M. Foucher (Iconographic Bouddhique, pp. 121 and 148) has drawn our attention to the miniature of a Nepalese mS. of the 8th-9th century A.D. which bears the inscription "Vajrapāṇi of Maṅgakoṣṭha in Oḍḍiyāna." Maṅgakoṣṭha is only a different name of Maṅgalapura (Mong-kie-li of Hiuan tsang), the chief city of the Swat Valley. (3) In the more ancient Tantras, for example the Hevajratantra (7th patala), the order of the pīthas is as follows:

# पोठं जालसरं खातं घोडियानं तदेव च। पीठं पूर्वमिरि चेव कामस्यन्तवेव च॥

So if Oddiyāna be at all near any place it was certainly not near Kāmarūpa but near Jālandhara. (4) In the Romakasiddhānta Uddiyāna is enumerated along with Sindhu-Surāṣṭra. (5) In the T'ang annals (Chavannes, Documents, p. 160) the boundaries of Uddiyāna (Yue-ti-yen) are given as follows: India is on the South; Chitral is on the North-West and it is situated to the North of the Indus. (6) As regards the antiquity of the form Odiyāna one may refer to an inscription of the year 77 of the Kushan era (Lüders, List, No. 62) which records the gift of a monk Jīvaka, a native of Odiyāna. No authentic source of information of this period mentions Oda (i.e., Odra). There can be, therefore, no doubt that Uddiyāna is the same as the Swat Valley and that Oddiyāna, Udiyāna Uddiyāna O-rgyan, O-di-ya-na, U-rgyan, U-di-ya-na and Wu-teh'ang and Yue-ti-yen are all different forms of the same name and are quite distinct from Orissa.

Dr. Bhattacharyya may still demand satisfaction on three more points: (i) where was then Zahor, to the royal family of which Śantarak ita

belonged? As Indrabhūti, the king of Uddiyāna married the sister of the former at Zahor, Zahor must be in the proximity of Uddiyāna. (ii) Where is Lankāpurī of which Jalendra was the king? As Jalendra's son married the sister of Indrabhūti, Lankāpurī must be in the same zone as Uddiyāna. (iii) According to the Tibetan sources Lui-pa was an employee of the king of Uddiyāna. But how is this that songs attributed to him are written in Bengali?

Zahor is mentioned in the Tibetan sources in connection with the countries which Indrabhūti visited after leaving Uddiyāna. He visited the cemeteries of Biddha 1 country, a particular cemetery in Kāśmīr and another in Nepal and last of all the cemetery called Lanka in Zahor (Waddel, Lamaism, p. 382). Nobody has the right to separate any of these names from the context in which the mention of Kāśmīr points out, beyond all doubt, that Zahor visited by Indrabhūti is the borderland between Kāśmīr and Nepal which is not very far from Uddiyāna. The identification of Zahor with Mandi as proposed by Francke (Indian Tibet, Vol. II, pp. 65, 89-90) is therefore quite correct. If one refers to pp. 419 ff. of the Punjab Tribes and Castes, Vol. I, he will be certainly surprised to see the persistence of the old beliefs in the country of Santaraksita, Lankapuri is a cemetery in Zahor. But we have a different description of Lankapuri in the history of the 84 Siddhas, where it is said that the country has two divisions, one is Sambhala of which Indrabhūti was the king and the other Lankapuri of which Jalendra was the king (Taranath, p. 325). The Tibetan accounts very often are confused and it is not uncommon that in them simple cemeteries have been converted into monasteries (see I.H.Q., Vol. V, p. 763 n.). Leaving aside the cemetery of Lankapuri in Zahor it may be admitted that a certain locality in Uddiyana was also called Lankapuri. But the identification of Zahor with "a place in Assam" as proposed by Dr. Bhattacharyya does not satisfy even his own position as he has been obliged this time to locate Uddiyana in Assam! There are, however, indications which justify us in thinking that some locality in North-western India was known as Lanka. Jayabhadra, a translator of Cakrasambaratantra into Tibetan, is said to have been a man of Lanka, also written Langa (Cordier, Catalogue, II, pp. 42-43). Ceylon was certainly not known as Lanka in this period and Cakrasambaratantra had probably nothing to do with Ceylon. On the contrary there

I am not sure about the identification of this place with Videha (?) proposed by Waddel. It may be very well pi-t'u (—Bhida) which Fa-hien visited just after crossing the Indus.—Cunningham, Geography, p. 178.

is ample evidence to show that the culture of Sambaratantra was intimately connected with Sambhala country which is said to have been a part of Uddiyana. Lanka of Jayabhadra, therefore, seems to have been the same as the Lankapuri of Jalendra. Hiuan tsang (Watters, II, p. 257) speaks of a country of Lang-kie-lo in the lower valley of the Indus, where there were 100 monasteries with 6,000 monks of both Hinayana and Mahayana in his time. This name has been connected with that of the Langga tribe that still lives in the north of Baluchistan. This Langa tribe is distributed in different districts of the North-west and classed as a Jat tribe in the districts of Dera Ghazi Khan "where it was probably aboriginal or immigrant from eastward" (Punjab Tribes and Castes, II, p. 30). Considering the immigrant nature of this people, it is not probably too much to think that they once occupied districts contiguous to the Swat Valley further to the north-west, and that their country was known as Lauka. The other form of the name of the native place of Jayabhadra, Langa, is to be taken notice of in this connection.

Now the last objection about the identification of Uddiyana, remains to be answered. How could Lui-pa belong to Uddiyana and be a Bengali at the same time? This question is rather complicated because it is connected with many others. The name of Lui-pa is in Tibetan Na-lto-pa, i.e., Matsyantrada. Though Cordier (Catalogue, II, p. 33) hesitates to take him to be the same as Matsyendranatha, he cannot adduce any plausible reason for doing so (see also, S. Lévi, Le Népal, I, p. 353, n. 4). I refrain from discussing this problem for the present as Prof. Tucci has dealt with it in a paper to be shortly published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. 1 It suffices for me to say that the mystic cult connected with the name of Matsyendranatha went far beyond the limits of Bengal and was in vogue in many distant parts of India. There is therefore no wonder if his name is associated with both Uddiyana and Bengal. Moreover while studying the history of these sects we cannot overlook the importance of the great community which the Yogins from remote parts of India formed in ancient times and do still form. Nor can we overlook the fact that these extraordinary people coming from different parts of India still meet in the inaccessible shrines of the Himālaya to communicate their secret doctrines to each other and thus maintain the solidarity of the religion of which they are the representatives.

Dr. Bhattacharyya is to be specially congratulated for sections § 4 and 7, Chronology of Vajrayāna and the authors of the Sādhanas. He

Vajrayāna and find out an acceptable chronology. This chronology may have to be modified in the light of future researches but still a beginning had to be made somewhere. There is room for supplementation, but I refrain from it as that will exceed the scope of a review. I will however content myself in pointing out that Asaāga, the author of Sādhana No. 159 cannot be identified with the great teacher of Yogācāra unless it is proved that the complicated ritualism described in this Sādhana already originated in the 4th century A.D.

One of the Sādhanas (No. 127), of which the importance has been recognised by Dr. Bhattacharyya himself (pp. cxxxv-exliii), is of great historical value. It is the Eknjatāsādhana, which is said to have been recovered by Ārya Nāgārjuna, (i.e., Siddha Nāgārjuna, circa 7th century A.D.) from the country of Bhoṭa, i.e., Tibet (ārya-Nāgārjuna-pādaih Bhoṭeṣu uddhṛtam). In fact there are six sādhanas (Nos. 123-127) devoted to the goddess Ekajaṭā. The description of Ekajaṭā, as given in these sādhanas, closely agree with that of Mahācīnakramatārā in Sādhanas 100 and 101. A comparison of these two goddesses show that they are essentially identical, the only difference being in the bīja mantras, in the case of Mahācīnakramatārā it is composed of three letters (tryakṣarī vidyā: om hrīm hum, cf. Sādhana No. 101) whereas in case of Ekajaṭā it is sometimes composed of 4 letters (om hrīm trīm hum, cf. Sādhanas 123, 125, 126, 127 and as hrīm trīm hum phaṭ in Sādhana 124) and sometimes of 5 (om hrīm trīm hum phaṭ, cf. Sādhana 124).

Corresponding to these goddesses we find in the Hindu pantheon not only Tārā, as supposed by Dr. Bhattacharyya, but also Ugratārā (of whom the worship was introduced by Vasiṣṭha and hence the same as (Mahācīnatārā), Ekajatā and Mahānīlasarasvatī. The dhyāna of Tārā quoted by Dr. Bhattacharyya on p. exxxix is the same as that of Nilasarasvatī, as stated in the Phetkārī Tantra (see Tantraśāra, pp. 514f.). Further it should be noticed that in Sādhana 101 it is said that Cīnatārā is to be worshiped in:

# एकलिके सम्माने वा स्थागारे च सब्बंदा। तच्छा: साध्येद योगी विद्यां विभवमीचणीम्॥

In Sadhana 123 it is said that the Yogi should meditate on Ekajață in solitude, cremation ground, and street corners (विजने धनअभानपत्राही). The same is true about Nilasarasvati. In Tantrasāra (p. 506 quoting from

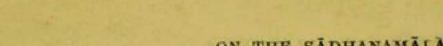
the Phetkari Tantra) practically the same verse as found in Sadhana, p. 101, is quoted with the interpolation of two lines:

एककलिङ्गे सम्माने वा स्वागारे चतुष्ये। [ सवस्थीपरि मुर्क्के वा असे वा कच्छपूरिते॥ संयामभूमी योनी वा स्थाने वा विजने वने।] तषस्य: साध्येद योगी विद्यां विभवनेष्यरीम्॥

The Tantrasāra quotes from a number of authorities to explain the difference between the goddesses described before. Nilasarasvatī is usinqual usi usināmani (Nilatantra). She is a Pancākṣarī-vidyā; she is Ekajaṭā while she is separated from Tārā (i.e., the praṇava); she is Nilasarasvatī while in unison with Tārā; and she is Ugratārā while she is a vidyā of three letters. The presiding goddess of other vidyās is Ekajaṭā because Ekajaṭā is her very nature.

It is therefore evident that the Hindu Tantras considered Ekajata, Nīlasarasvatī and Ugratārā as different aspects of the same goddess. Buddhist Tantras do not speak of Nilasarasvati but mention Mahācīnakramatārā instead. Both Ekajatā and Mahācīnakramatārā are of foreign importation. The Hindu Tantras all have preserved this tradition. The hints of this is already given in the verse quoted above from the Nilatantra where Nilasarasvati is called Sarvabhāṣāmayī, knower of all languages and Sarvāmnāyair namaskrtā, worshipped in all the traditions. The story recorded in the Taratantra (to which attention was first drawn by H. P. Sastri-Notice of Skt. MSS., and fasc. Vol. I, 3, p. xxxii and 152) describes how Vasistha went to Mahācīna to get instructions from Buddha. He brought from there the cult known as Mahācīnakramācāra which prescribes the worship of Mahācīnatārā. If there is any truth behind this story, it certainly reveals that the cult of Mahācīnatārā was incorporated into Hinduism from the Buddhist Tantras. In Nepal Nilatārā and Ugratārā are worshipped both by the Buddhists and the Hindus. Both the traditions, Hindu and Buddhist, thus agree in pointing out to the foreign origin of the goddess, known as Mahācīnatārā and Ekajatā in Buddhist Tantras, and as Mahācīnatārā, Ekajatā, Ugratārā and Nīlasarasvatī, etc., in Hinduism. Siddha Nagarjuna and Vasistha play the same rôle in importing the cult

¹ Cf. Tantrasāra, p. 507; एषा पञ्चाचरी। तदेवाइ—पञ्चाचरो एकजटा ताराभावे महेचरी। वाराया तु भवेहेवि श्रीमत्रीलसरस्ततो॥ उपतारा वाचरी च महानोलसरस्ततो। सन्यासा विद्यानाम् एकजटैव देवताप्रकृतित्वात्।



either from Bhota or Mahācīna (countries which may be considered identical). The name of Siddha Nāgārjuna seems to have been repugnant to the Hindus as being a typically Buddhist one and this is why it was probably replaced by that of Vasistha.

The description of Tara or Nilasarasvati as akşobhya devimurdhanya "having Aksobhya on her head," as supposed by Dr. Bhattacharyya, confirms the Buddhist origin of the deity. The identity of Aksobhya and Mahesa as suggested in the Todala Tantra (cxxxviii) is probably a late one. I will quote another text from the Hindu sources which gives a similar description of Aksobhya, and points out the foreign origin of Nilasarasvati. In the 5th chapter of the Sammoha Tantra (called Akşobhyatārāsamvāda), preserved in the Darbar Library, Nepal (see H. P. Sastri, Catalogue of the Darbar Library, II, p. 183) we find the origin of Nilasarasvati described in a corrupt Sanskrit as follows:

- (fol. 21a) अझणो वचनं अला प्रजहासत महेचर:। ग्रवाबाबितो विव महानीलसरस्रती ॥२॥ यस्याः प्रसादमालभ्य चतुष्यदान वदिष्यति । मेरी: पश्चिमकृति तु चीलनामा महाइद: ॥२॥ तव जन्ने स्वयं देवी माता नीखीयतारा। एतिखानेव काले त मेरी ग्रहम्परायण: ॥५॥ जपं जाप्यं समासाद्य वियुगं च ततः स्थितः। समीक्षेत्रकाज्ञि:सत्य तेजीराणि विनिगेत: ॥६॥ इट चोले निपत्यैव नौलवर्णाभवत पुरा। ब्रदस्य चीत्तरभागे ऋषिरेको महोत्तर: ॥०॥
- अचीभ्य नाम चात्रित्य सुनिवेशधर: शिव:। (fol. 21b) येनादी जप्यते यातु सत्त्वस्य ऋषिरीरिता (?) ॥५॥ विश्ववापकतोये तु चीनदेशे स्वयं शिवे। श्राकारीपरिटाकारसस्थीपरि च इंकृति:॥८॥ कुचंबोजसङ्पा सा पत्यालीटपदाभवत् । महोयतारा सञ्जाता चिन्प्रभा श्रीमहाकला ॥१०॥

The Maheśvara said to Brahmā, "Hear from me about Mahānīlasarasvatī with attention. It is through her favour that you will narrate the four Vedas. There is a lake called Cola on the western side of the Meru. The mother goddess Nilogratārā, herself was born there ...... the light issuing from my upper eye fell into the lake Cola and took a

blue colour. There was a sage called Aksobhya, who was Siva himself in the form of a muni, on the northern side of the Meru. It was he who meditated first on the goddess (?), who wes Pārvatī herself reincarnating in Cīnadeśa at the time of the great deluge..........."

According to this legend Nilasarasvati, also called Mahogratārā, was born in a lake called Cola, on the western side of the Meru, which was included in the Cinadesa. Her vidyā is composed of three letters, a ta (probably a mistake for ta) and hum, i.e., om trīm hum. It is idle to try to find out a precise geographical information here, but it may be suggested that cola is probably to be connected with the common word for lake, kul, kol, which is found with names of so many lakes to the west and north of T'ien shan, i.e., in the pure Mongolian zone.

#### ON FOREIGN ELEMENT IN THE TANTRA

1

The Tantra still remains an enigma to us. Very little work has been done in this domain and very little attempt has been made in the interpretation of its doctrines. But the fact remains that a vast literature has been written on it—a literature which is mostly found in manuscripts. The Tantras can be broadly divided into two classes—orthodox and heterodox. The orthodox Tantras are mainly represented by the Agamas, the Yāmalas and their supplements. The heterodox Tantras are both Buddhist and Brāhmanical and are represented by the texts of a number of Tantrik schools like Kulācāra, Vāmācāra, Sahajayāna, Vajrayāna, etc. In the present article I will deal with a number of indications contained in the Tantrik literature which definitely points out that mystic practices of foreign origin crept into the heterodox class of Indian Tantras at a very early date.

H. P. Sastri in his Catalogue of the Palm-Leaf MSS. of the Darbar Library, Nepal (1906, p. lxxix) quotes a very significant stanza from the Kubjikā-tantra which points out that the Kubjikā School of Tantras is probably of foreign origin:

"Go to India to establish yourself in the whole country and make manifold creations in the sacred places of primary and secondary importance."

In another place in the same Tantra the Tantras of this school are said to have originated among the potters, a lower caste Hindus, and this is why they are said to have belonged to the kulālikāmnāya. It is prescribed there that the Goddess Kubjikā should be worshipped in the house of a potter.

A certain number of Tantrik practices styled Cinācāra has been much discussed by scholars. The Tārā-Tantra adopted by both Hinduism and Buddhism says that the cult of Cina-Tārā came from the country of Mahācīna. Vasiṣṭha, one of the greatest Brāhmana sages is said to have gone to the country of Mahācīna to meet Buddha, who was to be found at that time neither in India nor in Tibet. Vasiṣṭha was initiated there by Buddha to the secret doctrines of Cīnācāra and subsequently came back to India to propagate them. In this Cīnācāra Prof. Sylvain Lévi finds distant echo of the secret societies which existed in China (Le Népal, I, pp. 346f.). On my part while discussing one of the Sādhanas published

by Dr. Binayatosh Bhattacharya (No. 127 of the Sādhanamālā) I have tried to establish the identity of Mahācīna-Tārā with Ekajaţā, whose cult is said to have been recovered by Siddha Nagarjuna in Tibet (ante, pp. 42ff.). The Sadhana of the Goddess Ekajaga was discovered by him in the country of Bhota (Arya-Nagarjunapadaih Bhotesu uddhrtam). The description of Ekajață is found in six different Sadhanas (123-128). It closely agrees with that of Mahācīnakrama-Tārā as found in Sādhanas 100 and 101. A comparison of these two goddesses show that they are essentially identical, the only difference being in the Bija-mantra; in the case of Cīnakrama-Tārā, it is composed of three letters, and in the case of Ekajatā, it is sometimes composed of 4 and sometimes of 5 letters. Corresponding to these goddesses we find in the Hindu Pantheon Tara, Ugratārā, Ekajatā, and Mahā-Nilasarasvatī. The dhyānas of these goddesses as found in the Hindu Tantras literally correspond with those found in the Buddhist Sadhanas. In the article already referred to I have also quoted from the Sammoha Tantra found by me in Nepal the following significant passage about the origin of this goddess :-

"The Mahesvara said unto Brahmā, hear from me about Mahā Nīlasarasvatī with attention. It is through her favour that you will narrate the four Vedas. There is a lake called Cola on the western side of the Meru. The mother, goddess Nīlogratārā was born there... the light issuing from my upper eye fell into the lake Cola and took a blue colour. There was a sage called Akṣobhya, who was Siva himself in the form of a muni, on the northern side of the Meru. It was he who meditated first on the goddess (?), who was Pārvatī herself reincarnating in Cīnadeša at the time of the great deluge."

According to this text Nilasarasvati or Ugratārā was born in a lake called Cola on the western side of the Meru which was included in the Cinā-deša. I suggested that Cola is probably to be connected with the common word for lake, kul, kol, which is found with the names of so many lakes to the west and north of the Tien shan that is to say in the pure Mongolian zone.

There are ample evidence to prove that the zone of heterodox Tantras went far beyond the natural limits of India. Some of the Tantras divide the Tantrik world into three krāntās or regions, Viṣṇukrāntā, Aśvakrāntā and Rathakrāntā. Viṣṇukrāntā comprises the region from the Vindhyas to Chaṭṭala (Chittagong), Aśvakrāntā, the region from the Vindhya to Mahāeīna including Nepal, and Rathakrāntā from the Vindhya to the

great ocean including Kamboj and Java (see Avalon, Principles of the Tantras, Vol. II, Introd.).

In the Sammoha Tantra (fol. 7 a-b) we find a similar enumeration of Tantrik zones. The zones are here fixed according to two different Tantrik modes, known as Kādi and Hādi. The countries in which the Kādi mode is in vogue are the following:—

Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Kerala, Kāśmīra, Kāmarūpa, Mahārāṣṭra, Saurāṣṭra, Drāvida, Tailinga, Malayādri, Karnāṭa, Avanti, Vaidarbha, Abhīra, Mālava, Caula, Cola, Kamboja, Videha, Bāhlika, Kirāta, Kaikaṭa, Airākī, Bhoṭa, Cīna, Mahācīna, Nepāla, Sīlahaṭṭa, Gauda, Kośala, Migadha, Snotkala (?Utkala), Kuntala, Hūṇa, Konkaṇa, Kekaya, Sūrasena, Kaurava, Simhala, Pulinda, Kaccha, Madra, Sauvīra, Lāṭa, Barbara, Matsya and Sindhu.

The countries in which the Hadi mode is in vogue are the following:-

Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Suvīraka, Kāsmīra, Kāmboja, Saurāṣṭra, Magadha, Mahārāṣṭra, Mālava, Nepāla, Kerala, Cola, Cala, Gauda, Malaya, Simhala, Vonka (?), Vido (?), Vyonda (?), Karnāṭa, Lāṭa, Malāṭa, Panaṭa, Andhaka, Pulindaka, Hūṇa, Kaura(?), Gandhāra, Vidarbha, Videha, Bāhlika, Barbara, Kekaya, Kośala, Kuntala, Kirāta, Sūrasena, Sevara (? Sauvīra) Banaṭa, Taṅkaṇa, Kaṅkaṇa, Matsya, Madra, Maida, Saindhava Pārśvakika, Dyorjāla, Yavana, Jala, Jalandhara, Salva (? Sālva), Sindhu.

Two points are noteworthy about the zones described above. A number of countries beyond India are enumerated and described as the centres of Tantrik culture. These are—Bāhlika (Balkh), Kirāta (the hill tribes of the Himalayan zone), Bhoṭa (Tibet), Cīna (China), Mahācīna (Mongolia?), Maida (Media?), Parśvakika (? Pārasīka—Persia), Airāka (Irak?), Kamboja, Hūṇa, Yavana, Gandhāra and Nepāla. It is not to be literally believed that Tantrik culture ever spread to all those distant countries. The truth is perhaps that some heterodox schools of Tantras associated themselves with those countries either through tradition or through the community of some mystic beliefs, of which the history is lost to us. We should further note in this connection that even within the limits of India some non-Aryan groups of people like Pulinda, Kirāta, Barbara, Tankaṇa, Ābhīra, Kuntala, etc., are connected with that paticular culture.

Another important point to be noted is that within the limits of India the countries of the outer zone only are enumerated. The Mid-Land (Madhyadeśa), the country of the orthodox Brahmanical culture, is.

and Kośala which may very well be Southern Kośala. In an article published in the Indian Historical Quarterly (Vol. VI, pp. 98ff, cf. ante, pp. 16ff.) I have tried to establish that the Mid-Land was the country of the orthodox Tantrik culture of which the 18 Agamas and their supplements formed the sacred literature. But the countries around it like Kāmarūpa, Kāśmīra, Kalinga, Końkana, Kānei, Kośala, etc., were not fit places for its cultivation. The Brahmins of those countries were unfit to be priests according to the orthodox Tantras. So it is evident that in these countries on the outer zone grew later on a sort of Tantrik culture which was of a different inspiration.

The unknown compiler of the Sammoha Tantra does not remain content by simply enumerating the different countries. He pretends to possess some knowledge of the Tantras current in some of these countries. Thus on fol. 27° while referring to the Tantras of different schools, he says that the country of Cina possesses 100 primary and 7 subsidiary Tantras (śatam tantrāni cīne tu upatantrāni sapta ca), Drāvida has 20 primary and 25 subsidiary Tantras, Kerala has 60 subsidiary Tantras and so on.

The sacred centres (pithasthana) of primary importance, as found in the heterodox Hindu Tantras and the Buddhist Tantras are four in number, Kāmarūpa, Pūrņagiri, Oddiyāna and Jālandhara. Pūrņagiri has not yet been definitely identified. But there is no doubt that Uddiyana corresponds to the Swat valley, of which the people used to make "the acquisition of magical formulæ their occupation" (Watters, On Yuan Chwang, I, p. 225) already in the time of Hiuan Tsang in the beginning of the seventh century A.D. Jālandhara and Kāmarūpa have not changed their names since ancient times. (All these three places are situated on the high roads leading to countries outside India-Uddivana situated in the valley of the Swat river, easily accessible from the Upper valley of the Indus, has been the meeting place of the people of different origin. It is situated on the high road that connects the Upper valley of the Indus with Balkh, Samarcand, etc., on the one hand and the Pamirs, Khotan, Kashgar, etc., on the other by the valley of the Gilgit. Jālandhara is situated on another highway that connects Tibet with India through the Shipki pass, and Kāmarūpa has to a great extent been the centre of activities of foreign peoples who have been coming down from the Northern and the North-eastern hills since very ancient times. It is probably not without significance that Bhāskaravarman who was the king of Kāmarūpa told a Chinese envoy to India that his forefathers had come to India from

the country of Mahācīna and requested him to send a Sanskrit translation of Tao-te-king, the sacred text of Taoism and a portrait of Lao-tzu, its founder. In ancient time a land route connected Assam with Western and Southern China through the Patkoi hills and Upper Burma, and this route was generally followed by the invaders and immigrants from the North-East.

II

I will now proceed to deal with particular Tantrik texts that contain direct references to practices of decidedly foreign origin. The Jayadratha Yāmala, which I have elsewhere proved to be a compilation of the 8th century A.D., while discussing the special doctrines of different Tantrik schools mentions, amongst others, the practices of the Lāmās (Lāmāvarga), Šākinīs and Yoginīs (Jayadratha Yāmala, Ṣaṭka III, folia 187a-193b). The texts in which these practices are described are sometimes very obscure. Following is roughly the substance:—

"The special doctrine of the Lāmās is conducive to spiritual success (siddhi) According to it one should not cultivate the company of other gods except Siva (?). The words of the Guru as embodied in the Tauras may or may not be followed. One should have all worldly desires and need not follow the strict discipline. He should have no satisfaction in (current) religious doctrines and practices. He should think that it is his own self that is alone present everywhere and practice self-control in the company of women. He should perform religious acts on particular auspicious days according to the prescribed discipline. He should not be angry even at the gravest provocation. Such is the practice of the group of Lāmās.

According to the special doctrine of the Sākinīs the adept should never divulge the mantras to others. He should practise samādhi in company of all women, should always meditate on the nāda, take his meals at night and worship Siva. He should not violate the discipline of his sect during the Dakṣiṇāyana, should practise self-control by all means, should maintain his own Kula and should avoid the intermixture of Kulas. He should have himself undisturbed in respect of body, speech and mind either in his own Kula or in that of others. He should have his meals in company of the Yogins. Those who follow the doctrines of the Sākinīs do not uselessly kill animals for the sake of sacrifice."

Now who are the Lamas and Sakints, of whom the special practices are just described? The dakints, rakints, lakints, kakints, sakints and hakints

pectively called damesvaranatha, ramesvaranatha, lamesvaranatha, kakes-varanatha, samvaranatha, and hamesvaranatha who together with their saktis, form mystic groups designated under the mnemonic da ra la ka sa ha. The Lord of Lama is here called Lamesvara. Lama is not the commonly known Tibetan word Bla-ma meaning scholar, but something different. The Lamas are mentioned in the Jayadratha Yamala on two other occasions in the same context (192a):—

Durlabhā Kāšyapīvarge pancāmṛtavivardhitā i Rūpikā Cumbikā Lāmā parāvṛttātha pālikā u anivartā ca...dvedhī janmāntara-samudbhavā i ctāstu samgamenaiva parām siddhim dadanti ca i vikhyāti raktamādau tu bhrūbhangah kurute tatah u samhṛtyārthādaya paścācca punarmarśayet u .......ālāpenāpi cumbati cumbikā sā'nuvijneyā yoginī baladarpitā... nišvāsai rbhairavaistā stu Lāmānām tad vini rdišet u

The Lāmās, otherwise known as Rūpikā and Cumbikā, flourish among the rare group of the Kāśyapīs. Association with them is conducive to spiritual success. They are called Rūpikā because they assume different shapes during their intercourse with others. They are called Cumbikā because they kiss at the very first introduction.

In the Hevajra Tantra (Paṭala III, fol. 6a) the Lāmās are referred to in the company of the dakints and called Khandorahā and Rūpiņā.

Dākinī tu tathā Lāmā Khandarohā tu Rūpiņī

The Lāmās, therefore, constituted a mystic group of female Tantrik adepts who had their special practices. The Sammoha Tantra (fol. 396) in another place distinctly refers to a Tantrik practice (vidyā) called Lamayāmnāya, i.e., the āmnāya of the Lamas or Lāmās.

The Lāmās are also known from other sources. Waddell, in his Lamaism (p. 364), describes in detail a goddess called in Tibetan Lha-mo. She is also called pal ldan Lha mo (Skt. Devi or Śri Devi). She is the "goddess or the queen of the warring weapons." She "like her great prototype the goddess Durgā of Brāhmaņism is perhaps the most malignant and powerful of all the demons, and the most dreaded. She is credited with letting loose the demons of disease and her name is scarcely ever mentioned and only then with bated breath and under the title of the great

queen. In her pictures she is pictured as surrounded by flames and riding on a white-faced mule, upon a saddle of her own son's skin flayed by herself. She is clad in human skins and is eating human brains and blood from a skull and she wields in her right hand a trident rod. She is publicly worshipped for seven days by the Lāmās of all sects, especially at the end of the 12th month in connection with the prevention of disease for the incoming years. And in the cake offered are added among other ingredients the fat of a black goat, blood, wine, dough, and butter and these are placed in a bowl made from a human skull." In Western Tibet Lha-mos and dākinīs are represented as beautiful young women but more often with fearful faces, etc., to signify their power "to destroy demons whom it is their mission to combat." First in rank stands Lha-mo (Mahākālī), "mother of the gods." She is represented in 15 different forms, but specially as a woman of frightful aspect holding a club with a dead man's head at its end and a skull for cap.

In the district of Kanaur, Buddhists believe in (i) Paldan Lamo, the supreme goddess equivalent to Mahākālī, (ii) Sai Lamo or the goddess Devi Bhagavatī, (iii) Sai Lamo or Baṭuka Bhairava (The Punjab Castes and Tribes, I, pp. 82, 83, 91, etc.).

We thus see that in Tibet in modern times the Lāmās who are certainly the same as the Lamos are conceived as goddesses of the type of Kāli and worshipped according to rites that can be called Tantrik. It seems that in more ancient times these Lāmās, like many other goddesses of the Tantrik pantheon, were female Tantrik adepts who later on came to be deified. It is the practice of these adepts of Tibetan mysticism that is referred to in the Tantrik texts mentioned before. That these Lamos were in the habit of kissing people at their first meeting with them seems to be a direct reference to the Tibetan mode of greeting by showing the tongue.

In this connection I may be permitted to make a few suggestions about the other groups of female adepts of Tantrik mysticism, e.g., the lakinis, the dakinis, the sakinis. In Western Tibet, the land of sorcerers and witches, there is a class of sorcerers called Lha-ka (probably Lha-k'a) or god's mouthpiece (also called Ku T'em ba). They "are frequently found in Western Tibet and may be females in which case the woman may marry without hindrance to her profession. These wizards are especially resorted to for relief of pain" (ibid., pp. 482 ff.). Lakinis seem to have been the name adopted in the Tantrik literature for these wizards. Similar types of witches distantly connected with the Dags (the people of Dagistan) and Sakas were probably referred to in the Tantras as dakinis and sakinis,

respectively. Evidence is not wanting to prove that women still have a great rôle in the spiritual life of different people of this zone as well as that of Central Asia and Mongolia.

#### III

I have elsewhere tried to prove that the Tantrik doctrines were usually garbed in a mystic language. In the Buddhist Tantras it is called Sandhabhasa or Sandhavacana. It is sometimes very difficult to penentrate into that language and arrive at the real interpretation of the doctrines.

The Javadratha Yāmala while describing the special practices of the Lāmās mentions the special language to be used with them. This language is described as monosyllabic (Ekākṣara-samullāpa) and may thus be considered to have belonged to the Sino-Tibetan family as the Lāmās themselves belonged to the Tibetan group of mystics The Lāmās, according to this language, had 4 different names:—Yogini, Rūpini, Lāmā, Śākini, Nālini, Khazi, Culi, Bilā, Trikhagagā, Pešini, Dehini Jalā, evati, Bedhani, Luki, Paḍabhi, Raktini, Hisā (?), Karoṭhi, Kaluši, Bhadrā, Dundubhi, Mukharā and Āturā. We have already seen that the Lāmās were Rūpikā as they were capable of assuming different shapes. Some of the 24 names enumerated are descriptive of such shapes which they could assume.

A number of words belonging to the language of the Lāmās is mentioned in the Jayadratha Yāmala. A comparison of these words with Tibetan and with other allied languages of the Himalavan zone probably shows that they were culled from some dialect of that family. There are only two difficulties in establishing the identity of these words. As I have to depend on a single manuscript of the text preserved in the Darbar Library of Nepal, and as that manuscript also is in part corrupt on account of the negligence of the copyists, I have not always been able to determine the real forms of the words. The words as transcribed in the text always possess a vowel ending though we are told at the outset that the language is a monosyllabic one. We have to remember that the compiler of the text could not always faithfully transcribe the words as they belonged to a foreign tongue. Besides we are not yet in a position to determine the real forms of the words in question as they were in the 8th century A.D., when

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The late Mahāmahopādhyāya H. P. Sāstrī informed that the worship of Lāmādevī is prevalent in some parts of Midnapur. But I have not been able to collect any other information on it. A goddess called Raūkiņī is worshipped at Ghāţšilā in the district of Manbhum. This goddess may have some connection with our Rūkiņī.

the text was compiled. Our knowledge of the Tibetan dialects of that period is still very limited. A few such words are given below:

abhivadana-bimia? Tibet an -gdon-bus-greeting.

svāgatam—nārist, bibi; in the Sammoha Tantra (28) Nāriša is said to be the word for pranara according to the traditions of some Tantrik schools (ūrdhvāmnāye, ..nāriša pranava parikīrtita). bibi = \*bib cf. Tibetan phibs-biu menning welcome.'

Lha as in Lha-mo means devi. The word, therefore, may be connected with Lha tshabs.

bhagini-bhagin1?

duhitā-duhini?

śraśru-bhih, samani ;

of. Tib. pha, a-pha meaning 'father.'

bhrātrjāyā-nīmi simi?

patnī—gusu naye, there may be three different words here, gu su, naye; for the last two cf. Tib. chun ma and Chinese niu.

mātula—māţṛṣva?

pitā-pidimistho?

naptā-trimin1?

pitāmaha—bālusi? for 'grandfather' cf. Tib. po-bo, po-'o-lags; Sikimese—jo-jo-o.

mātāmaha-pilapiti nunoni?

for 'grandmother'--Tib. mo'o lat, a phyi lat, Sikimese--

Cherry to microse. We is the the

sura bhakta—airlsam?

pakşīrāma—āpisī ?

dadhi-div1?

ājya—limam ?

bhojana -dekaram, the real word seems to be \*de for which of. Lepca-zo, tha, and Magar-jeu, Tib. za-ba.

gūdha-duma?

svāmini-japam-\*jap of. Tib. zab meaning 'husbanding.'

pibāmi-barise?

agatah -enire \*eni cf. Newar-wone, Tib. 'on ba, etc., meaning ' to come.'

gacchāmi—nigānitesi; the correct form probably was \*nigānire which may contain two words ni, ga and the suffix re, cf. Tib. gyo, gyok; Lepca-non; Muami nyu, etc.

```
supta—suraktam = esurot? cf. Lepca-da, Gurung-rod

upta bija—nibinakā vulg. nilinitigi?

samudra—andhakāyo?

pṛthivī—anānī cf. Šokpa—wonnish.

parvata—uruka = euruk cf. Libetan—ri, Lepca—rok, Bhutanese—rong.

sapta—dveyāsinī?

nagarāstridaša—adhenā susurā?

sādhyā—pištāla?

svabhuja—pašābarā.

pakṣī—urba nogā, for bird cf. Tib. byu, Bhutanese bhya, Lepca—pho,

Limbu-bu. Newar—jbango, jha-ngo, Thochu—marwo,

11orpa—gyo.
```

hasti—ţiţila?
aśnā—nuka jabā—•nuk jab cf. Lepca—où\*, Limbu—où\*, Tib. chibs.
ajn—anīḍa=\*anīḍcf. Tib. —ra, Bhutanese—rab. | agar-rha, Gurung—ra;
gardabha—kharag?
gāva—śrota jabān?

cf. Tib. ba, Lepca—bik, Limbu—bit, Newar—sā, Thochu—sa-lo; Chepang—yo shyā (a bull).

mahişa-anujapā=\*anu, jap

cf. Limbu-sawet, Kiranti-sanwa.

ustra—mīna dvira ? vyāghra—pura, nyāsā ?

for 'tiger' of. Sokpa-par.

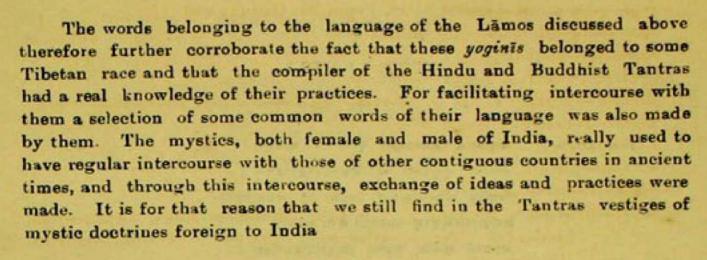
mṛga = śīra kolo, probably mistake for •śiba kol?

cf. Chepang—kosya, Tib. śa ba., Tib. (spoken) śa-p'o; Ladaki-śa-po.

sarpa—sahinī ? vijātayaļi—kahišesa ?

Besides these rapprochements another important fact is to be noted. The few verbs that are mentioned in the list—enire, barire, niganire, etc., end in re. Hodgson in his Comparative Vocabulary of these languages notes that in Limbu the suffix ré is usually found with the verbs. Cf. pāré—to give, phéré—to come, piré—to give, léré—to take away, xéré—to kill, etc.

For the comparison I have mostly depended on this Vocabulary of Hodgson.



## THE TEXTS.

winds transcribed that seems of the contract o

I

(Fol. 187a)

पन्यस्थिन् देवतासंगी हास्य कारयेत्।
तन्तीत्रं गुरुवाकां च विकल्पेशांवतास्येत्॥
विषयेषु लीलुपिकिनेत् नियमे हि चपवाहिनी।
समयाचारचेटासु चप्रसादी सदा भवेत्॥
चात्रानं सन्वतः पर्येत् चिहतपरिभावितः।
नारीचर्यासमुत्येन संयमी व्रतपादनं॥
तिद्यो तिद्येव तु सुन्यात् नियमेः परिभृषितं।
स्विकल्पेन लामानां सम्प्रदाय निवर्णते॥
चोत्रस्यपे चैव नित्यमक्षीधरो भवेत्।
दल्यटी समया प्रीक्षा लामावर्गस्य सिहिदा॥

11

(Fol. 189b)

प्रश्नमेदीयं चेव निर्धेक्टपद्पहिति।
योगिनी कार्यपोनां च भापका यण साम्प्रते॥
रामेदीरचनाः श्रीति प्रश्नो,यं प्रथमी मतः।

श्रययोगी मयाच्य दितीयः परिकौत्तितः॥

द्व्ये दन्द्रं निलिपिनीति सामा - व्रतीयकं।
च व श्रीयम्य भीम चलने गिरते विसः।

एविमासप्रमाजानं जन्मकं भञ्जकामि च।
द्रभैद्यो पद्ममं प्रश्नं कवितस्तव सुत्रते।

(Fol. 190c)

पने प्रासावहात्यानि वहस्त परिकीर्तितः।
इति कील्बहायोगं योगानि सप्तमः परं॥
पत व्याधिवस्तिय फिनेसनहिमीर्मात।
बहस देवि दुसैयः प्रती योगियरैरपि॥

t From the Jayadratha Yamala, Şatka III, paper MS. No. 375 of the Nepal Darbar Library. I have printed the text as it is without proposing any emendation.

The underlined passages are supposed to be the eleven questions to be put to the Yoginis while meeting them in deep dark nights. The language in which they are garbed is characterised as Paisaca Samskita, i.e., the Sanskrit of the Pisacas. Nothing could be made out of these questions, though their explanation is given in the verses that follow.

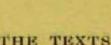


#### THE TEXTS

तिमोदिवितलांगानिवीविमीनमीनला। गमनीत महापत्री नवमी दुर्गमः परः॥ फिनीमहा सुनीमहा नाराधि नेनरासकत्। कराचरिष दशमा मात्रीयामपि च तथा॥ दुर्मेद्योऽयं महाप्रत्रः ..... योनिसभीयतक्हरे भीमयुरफलं दुबद्दं॥ नाहतमानिति तथा एकादशमी महापत्र:। श्रमकारे महाधोरे देशाचं संख्यतं बदेत्॥ बोटयाब्यदा (?) भेदीयं प्रथमस्य बरानने। नाम' भितोमयामस्य दितीयस्य प्रमेदने॥ पिवाम्यदा प्रभंगिं वा व्यतीयस्य विभेदनं। भवकारनता लामा एभिमिष्कृति सुत्रते॥ चतुर्थस्य तु देविशि भेदनं परिकोतितं। जनासम्बद्धम् को एषनामतमोदकः॥ भचयाम्यदा एद्येति पश्चमसः वरानने। प्रसादशिखराद्द विलंखः वृतिविचयं ॥ मका मनारमा लचा चार्गामध्यति तत्पर:। महासिंदि महाघोरं गगने न महातपे॥ गला तु मानुषाह्या पागिम्यति सप्तमे। प्रायजना नरेन्द्रस्य (?) पिवामीयच्मी स्रत:॥ सुराखये नगाइटा गत्थीगा नवमस्य तु। महामासाचरे यते सती तस्य तु रोचनं॥ ग्रहीला तस काष्ठस भागकामीपरस तु। इति प्रत्रभेदाय योगिनीनां समागमे॥ कचितां तव देवीय गुद्धात् गुद्धातराः पराः॥ चतिगुद्यतरा देवि प्रसुभाषा विकल्पनं। प्रभिवादन विश्वीत नारिसि विवि सागतं॥ लासभा इति माता तु भागिनी भागिनी खुता। दुहिनी दुहितित्याग्रः श्रम्भाभः समनी विदुः॥ नीमिशीमिति भाटन्या पत्री गुमुनये तथा। मावन्त्रे मातुलः प्रोक्तो पीडिमिस्बी पिता तथा ॥ बिसिनीति तथा नप्ता बालुसीति पितामहः। मातामइ पिलपित नुनीनि: परिकोचिता:॥

ऐरीशं सुरभक्तो आयोसि पचीरासुचते। दिवी दिध सिमं भाग्धं देवरं भीजनं तथा॥ दुम गृद्ध विज्ञेयो जपमोतीति स्वामिनी। पिवामौति वरिरे एनिरे चेति चागत:॥ निगानितेषी गव्हामि सुरक्षं सुप्तसुचाते। उप्तविज भौविनका भाषा निलिमीतिगी तथा॥ चन्यकायो समुद्रस्य चनानी पृथिबी खता। जरका एअंता देवि सप्तश्यासिनी तथा॥ थवेना सुसराक्षेया नगरास्त्रिद्या स्ता। पिश्रिताल तथा साध्या सभूजासु पशावरा। उर्वेनीमा तथा पत्नी टिटिला इसिनसथा। नुक जवा तथा भन्ना भनी इस्त भने विदुः। महिय: अनुजपा देवि छड़ो मीनहिरसचा। गह भी खरग: प्रोक्ती गाव: श्रीतलवान् तथा पुरन्यासासया न्याप्तं शीरकोलो सगसया। सहिनीता तथा सपं कहिशीय विजातय:॥ याजिकानां वरारीहे द्रव्यसंग्रहणं स्रुतं। परस्परविरोधन एवा चैव महानधे॥ उत्पयन सहसाचि सभावाभारचाचि तु॥ यीगिनी दिपची लामा शाकिमी हीचालिमी खगी चुलिविला वीखगगा पेशिमी देशिमी जला। रेवती वेधनी लुकी पड़भी रिक्रानी दिया। करोठी कालुबी भद्रा दुन्दुभी सुखरातुरा।

(Fol. 191a) चतुर्व्विधितिनामानि लामानां परिभावणे॥
पिधितं प्रल्गुपं मांसं पैधाचं राचसागणं।
कर्न्न पिति सर्व्यस प्राणिकं देशधारिणं॥
द्रवं पिष्क्रिलकं प्राणं जसीसीरकमन्तकं।
करं पीतं तथा त्रेतं दशमं जाधिरं कृतं॥
कार्ष्ठ वर्ष सतं सुप्तं चसंस्कारं चिताकार्ज।
शतप्राणमनामं च विसुक्तां प्रेतलचणं।
यूवं समानसंस्थानं क्रीदवासं स्तस्य तु।
भज्जप्रसादं स्तादं पिथं भूवं चशिक्तदं।



प्रार्थ बीटं च एतानि दश नामानि भच्यो। प्रेतालयं महाधीरं यमगानं निशिभुषणं। सर्व्वीजाग्रेषणं भीषं चखराचसधामकं। दीपनं चैव भाषं च चन्धकारं तमीत्वटं। लामावासं महासिद्धिं शतन्योति शतन्यलं। शिवालयं त देविशि प्रमानं परिकीत्तितं। गुशात गुशातरं मन्धं मिडिख्याता ग्रमुख च। नायुमाशीस्त्रिया देवि पुर्स गुस्त च भच्छा। समाताजीय मेफेति पत्नी चैव गिखं सुतं। लसं तथी तथा रक्तं भीमां संपेची कुर्यात्। दाश्चितं च तथा योगी लामालाखौतिकपियी। कुर गाकिनी दुरित चला चुन्नीमहायुषं। चां यागां से तथा देवि विज्ञेयमभिवादनात । एकाचरा समुज्ञापा एते माहगणस्य नु॥

ADDITIONAL NOTE .- While examining some MSS. in the Asiatic Society of Bengal for other studies, I have recently come upon another text concerning the Lamas. It is found in the Buddhist compendium called Abhidhanottara, preserved in the Government collection (see also H. P. Sastri, Catalogue of the Government Collection of Buddhist MSS., 1917, No. 10759). The MS. was copied in 1298 A.D. One of the sections (patala) is called the Lāmālakṣaṇa-patala (fol. 83b ff.). The Lāmās are conceived here as female ascetics of different types. One of the types is described as possessed with well proportioned limbs (samyagangāvayava), and round face (mukham yasyās tu dršyate parimandalam). They have long eye-lashes, and are well-dressed (suvastrā), beautiful and truthful (saumyā, satyavādinī). They are faithful to their true religion and brave sisters (saddharmaratā nityam vīrabhoginyah). The dharma and karma mudrās are to be used with them. Another type of Lāmās has long lips (lambosthi), red grey eyes (rakta-pingala-locana), auspicious looks and are fair like the Campaka flowers (subhagā dhanyā gaurī campaka-sannibhā). They are tall (dirghā), have fearful faces (karālā) and are fond of coloured dresses (vicitra-vasana-priyā). They laugh and play and stand obstructing the route (hasate ramate caiva margam akramya tişthati). 'The süla-mudra is to be used with them.

A third type of Lamas is red and fair (rakta-ganra) and has red, grey eyes (rakta-pingala-locana). They have wavy hairs and put on a sort of head-dress (kuñcitā ca tathā kešā paṭṭabandha śire tathā) and they have one wrinkle on their forehead (lalāṭe dṛṣyate caiva ekarekhā). They are long-necked, and fond of singing. They are particularly restless and protect in quarrels (calaccittā višeṣeṇa kalaheṣu ca rakṣyate). The śakti-mudrā is to be used with them.

The last type of Lāmās is short-statured and is fond of yellow clothes (hrasvā sthūla-janghā pītavastra-priyā); they have dark grey eyes (kṛṣṇa-pingalalocanā) and are dreadful-looking karālavikṛtāghorā sthūlā syāt sthūlavaktrajā | lamboṣṭhī kṛṣṇavarṇā ca koṭarākṣī rugnanāsikā ||). They are fond of dancing, have dark colour and are charming (nṛtya-gandharva-kuśalā meghavarṇā manoharā). The Nāgamudrā is to be used with them. Such Lāmās are called Heruka-lāmās (Srī Herukāṇām ca lāmānām etadbha-vati lakṣaṇam).

The text further speaks of the dākinīs and the symbolic language to be used with them. I will deal with this symbolic language along with other similar Tantric devices in a future article. uring my stay in Nepal I did not succeed in getting any information either about the Lāmos or Lāmo devī. I am however informed by some epalese of ayakot that there are temples of Lāno devīs in the interior of Nepal. The Tibetan Bla-mas only are entitled to enter the temples for worshipping them. It is currently believed also that if anybody excepting the priests enters the temple he is sure to die.

and the second of the second s

# CENTRAL LIERAN

#### SOME TECHNICAL TERMS OF THE TANTRAS

#### Candra-Sūrya

Though some scholars still entertain doubts as to the use of symbolical terms in the Tantras it is undeniable that such terms do exist in the Tantrik literature both Buddhist and Brahmanical. I propose here to study these terms as far as possible with the help of texts, either published or still in manuscript, and to draw the attention of scholars to the importance of this symbolism in the study of the Tantras. The presence of such technical terms in the Tantras renders their interpretation not only difficult but sometimes almost impossible for want of proper materials which contained the clue. It is therefore dangerous to take such terms in their literal sense because that does not only vitiate our interpretation but also hinders all progress in the study of Indian mysticism. As it will be seen, this symbolism is not arbitrary but is the logical outcome of some very old and original notions about things. It further points to the common basis of both Buddhist and Brahmanical mysticism.

Candra and Sūrya or the moon and the sun are two technical terms which are often met with both in the Buddhist and Brahmanical texts of mysticism. In the Buddhist Caryāpadas, written in old Bengali, and the Apabhramsa texts called Dohākoša which may be placed sometime between the 8th and 12th centuries A.D. these two terms or their synonyms are often used:

1. The Dohākośa of Saraha, verse 25 :

jahi mana pavana na sancarai ravi sasi naha pavesa | tahi bada citta visama karu......

"There where the mind and the wind do not move about, there where the rani and the śaśin do not enter, repose your citta there....."

1 I pointed it out sometime ago in a short note on Sandhābhāṣā (Indian Historical Quarterly) and in my review of the Sādhanamālā (I.H.Q., VI, p. 878). But see Winternitz, Notes on the Guhyasamāja (I.H.Q., IX, pp. 1 ff.).

2 For the Caryāpadas, references are made to the text published by the late Dr. H. P. Sastri but I have adopted the correct readings as established in the forthcoming edition of the work prepared by me in collaboration with Dr. S. K. Chatterji. For the Dohākoşa cf. the text as established by Dr. Shahidullah—Les chants mystiques.

- 2. The Dohakośa of Kanhupada, verse 5:
  - lalana rasana ravi sasi tudia benna vi pase
- " By destroying the ravi and the sasin, the lalana and the rasana on both sides ....."
  - 3. Two miscellaneous dobās of Saraha1canda sujja ghasi gholia ghottai 1 pāba punna tabē tā khane tuttai 1
- "When the candra and the surya are rubbed and mixed up together merit and demerit immediately disappear."

canda sujja beni gholia ghottaha

- " Mix up the two, candra and sūrya, by rubbing them."
- Caryapada of Krsna, 11: ravi sasi kundala kin abharane
- "The sun and the moon were converted into earrings.
- 5. Caryapada of Dombi, 14:

candra sujja dui cakā sithisamhāra pulindā | vāma dāhiņa na ceraï bāhatu chandā 1

- "The moon and the sun, (have now been made into) the two wheels in which lie creation and destruction. Without looking to the left and the right sides take (the boat) as you like."
  - 6. Caryapada of Vioa, 17: suja läü šaši lägeli tänti

The Siddha Vīnāpāda says that he has made a new kind of Vīnā of which " the sun is the gourd to which the moon-strings have been affixed."

7. Caryāpada of Saraha, 32 :

nada na bindu na ravi sasimandala 1 ciarãa sahābe mukkala 1

- "There is no nada, no bindu, no sun and no moon, the citta-raja is free by his own nature."
  - S. Caryapada of Gundari, 4: canda-suja beni pakhā phāla
  - " Cut off the two wings called the sun and the moon."
  - 1 Cf. Subhāşitasamgraha, ed. Bendall, pp. 79 and 81.

From the above passages 1 it is evident that sūrya and candra or ravi and śaśin are to be destroyed, mixed up together so that they may lose their independent existence, and to be made into ornaments, i.e., to be subordinated. When it is said that the sun is the gourd to which moon-strings have been affixed the implication is that they have not been allowed to work independently and have been brought together in such a fashion as to function in a combined way. Such treatment of the sun and the moon has been prescribed for bringing about a state of mind which is beyond the reach of the senses. This is a state of perfect repose and as that state of repose can be disturbed only by the sun and the moon these should be either removed, subordinated or controlled in such a way as not to be able to work independently.

There are also indications, in the passages quoted above, of the fact that these two, namely, the sun and the moon, are connected with the two sides ( $benna\ bi\ p\bar{a}sa$ )—the right and the left ( $v\bar{a}ma-d\bar{a}hina$ ), and are compared to the two wings ( $pakh\bar{a}$ ). This idea is also expressed in some of the Caryās:

- Caryā 8 (Kambalapāda): vāma dāhiņa cāpi mili mili māgā—
  where the poet says that he has been able to attain the
  great bliss (mahāsuha) "by keeping close to the (middle)
  way and pressing (i.e., keeping under control) the right and
  the left (ways)."
  - 2. Caryā 15 (Santipāda): vāma dāhiņā do vāţa cchādi-where
- . 1 The extracts from Sanskrit commentaries to these passages are given below in order:
- [1] यब सर्वेत्रनुषु सहपं सर्वेदनतया गुरोरादियात्। न स्थितेव्यपि चित्रविद्यानं छुद यव महत्तं प्राप्ताति [सि?]। तिसान् स्थाने मनसः पवनस्य च संचारी न भवति। तत्वैद रिव्यक्तिनीः प्रवेशनिकासी न सः।
  - [2] बामनासापुटे प्रजाचन्द्रसभावेन ललना स्थिता। द्वियनासापुटे उपायस्थिसभावेन रसना स्थिता।
  - [3] No commentary.
  - [4] वज्रजापपरिशोधितचम्द्रम्यादिकेन घर्यानुपुरादियोगिकालडारं कृतम्।
  - [5] चन्द्रं प्रजाजानं स्थामृत्याद्यानं पुलिन्दं समाभाषया नपुंसतम्। चय एते संसारस्य सृष्टिसंडार-कारकाः। सर्वधव्यानुपलकानतधी गच्छन् सन् वामद्खिणमालप्यानीरमनुपछानीति भी दीन्वि सम्बन्देन विलचणयोधितवोधिचित्रनीवाहनाभ्यासं कुदः।
- [6] सूर्यांभासं तु'विनाकारसृत्भेत्य चन्द्राभासेन तनिकास।
  - [7] नादविचादिविकस्पपरिचारात्-
  - [8] वजापीपदिशेन चन्द्रम्थंयी: पचयई खण्डियला-

the poet says that he moves on at will "after abandoning the right and the left ways."

3. Caryā 32 (Sarahapāda): vāma dahina jo khāla vikhalā: "the right and the left are the pitfalls."

That the two ways on either side, right and left, are pitfalls and full of difficulties is also indicated when it is said by the Siddha Cāţilla: dnānte cikhila mājhe na thāï—there is no ford on either of the two sides which are full of mud.

The sun and the moon, in some of the Caryas, are further connected with kāli (consonants beginning with ka) and āli (vowels beginning with a) respectively:

- the right way) has been obstructed by the vowels and the consonants."
- 2. Caryā 11 (Kṛṣṇapāda) :

  āli kāli ghaṇṭā neŭra caraṇe

  ravi-šaŝi-kuṇḍala kiŭ ābharaṇe

"Ali and kāli, i.e., vowels and consonants have been made into the anklets and the sun and the moon into rings of the ears." 2

When āli and kāli are mentioned, apparently certain emphasis is laid on the sound-value of the vowels and consonants and this emphasis is clearly kept in view in comparing them with nūpura, i.e., anklets, of which the utility consists in the fact that they make some sound whereas the kundala or the earring has no such value. The same idea is expressed by another, Siddha Viṇāpāda (Caryā 17), when he says: āli kāli beņi tāri suṇāe, i.e., "āli and kāli are the two things which produce the notes in the strings of the vīṇā."

Another idea is attached to it when Luipāda in one of his Caryās (1) says: amhe jhāņe dithā—dhamaņa camaņa beņi pāņdi baïthā "I have

- 1 The comments on these passages in order are :
- [1] बामदिचयमाथासदयं मध्यमायां प्रवेशयित्वाः
- [2] No comment.
  - [3] वामदिवामासदयपरिहारात्—
  - 2 The comments on these two passages are :
  - [1] वजनपोपदेशं लब्धा...पालिना लोकप्रानेन कालिना लोकभासेन च एकीक्रवावध्रतीमार्ग सहदं रूपत ।
  - [2] वजनापपरियोधितचन्द्रम्थादिकेन चळान्पुरादियोगिकालकारं कृतम्।

seen in meditation after sitting on (i.e., keeping under control) the two-dhamana and camana. The Sanskrit commentary connects dhamana with āli and śaśin whereas camana is connected with kāli and may be thus derived from the root dhmā which indicates a forward or outward movement, whereas camana may be derived from the root cam which means 'to eat,' i.e., taking in.

Last of all in a Caryā of the Siddha Dombipāda (14) the sun and the moon are compared to the two rivers Yamunā and Gaṅgā: Gaṅgā-Jaünā mājhere bahaï nāï—"the boat is being rowed (in a river) in the middle of the Gaṅgā and the Yamunā." The commentator tells us that the Gaṅgā is the moon and Yamunā is the sun.

We therefore get two groups of terms and each of them contains implications of the same nature. These two groups are :

- ravi, sūrya (compared to the lāii or gourd used for the vīṇā), kāli, camaņa, jaiinā (the Yamunā)—placed on the dāhiņa or the right.
- šašin, candra (compared to the tantri or the string of the vinā),
   āli, dhamaņa, Gangā —placed on the vāma or the left.

Now what do these two groups of terms really mean? On one occasion we have seen that the sun and the moon are called lalanā and rasanā. The commentator while explaining this particular portion of the Carvā says, that lalanā is seated in the left nostril in the form of moon (candra) which is the Prajāā and rasanā is seated in the right nostril in the form of the sun (sūrya) which is the Upāya. This can be further explained with the help of such authoritative Buildhist Cantras as the Hevajra Tantra and the Heruka Tantra.

In the Hevajra (Chap. I)2 it is said that there are 32 nadis within the body and they carry the bodhicitia upwards which ultimately pours

वार्तियत् नाषा: वार्तियद्वीधिचित्तवहा:। महासुखकाने (sic. खाने) सवन्य:। तासा['] मध्ये तिवः नाषा: प्रधाना:। लवना रसना चवधृति चेति।

ललना प्रशासभावेन रसनीपायसंख्यिता।
प्रवध्ति मध्यदेशे तु याद्यश्चकविक्ता॥
प्रशीस्यवद्या ललना रसना रक्त[प]वादिनी।
प्रशा चन्द्रवद्या ख्याता प्रवध्ति सा प्रकीर्त्तता॥ (?)
प्रालि कालि चन्द्रस्यं प्रशीपाय।

The Sanskrit comment runs : जहायसुनिति सन्ध्या चन्द्राभासम्व्याभासी याद्ययाहकी ।

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> From a Nepalese MS. of the text in my possession :

into the place of great bliss (mahā-sukha-sthāna). Three amongst the nādīs are principal and they are called lalanā, rasanā and avadhūti. The lalanā is characterised by Prajñā and rasanā by Upāya whereas the avadhūti is seated in the middle and is beyond the reach of 'the taken' and 'the taker' (grāhya-grāhaka)—i.e. the object and the subject. It is further said that the lalanā carries the akşobhya (Śukra or the semen virile), and the rasanā carries the blood (rakta). It is besides pointed out in the same text that:

āli = candra = prajnā and kāli = sūrya = upāya.

Almost the same explanation is found in the Heruka-Tantra 1 in which it is said (Chap. V): beginning from the region of the throat a nāḍI runs downwards along the left side up to the navel—it is the candra; āli carries the candra. On the right side beginning from the navel a nāḍī runs upwards to the region of the throat, it is the sūrya; kāli carries the sūrya. Elsewhere in the same text it is said that lalanā is the carrier of śukra and the rasanā is the carrier of the blood, that lalanā relates to the sambhoga-kāya, and rasanā to the nirmāṇa-kāya whereas avadhūti relates to the dharmakāya (Chap. VII).

This clearly relates to the nadis of which the existence within the body is supposed by the Hathayogins. Such a hypothesis is also largely

1 Heruka-Tantra [MS. in my possession]— Patala V. 6.7:

> कखादारम्य वामेन प्रवत्ता नाभिमण्डले । नाडिकाधोसुखी चन्द्र चालियन्द्रसमावहा ॥ नाभिरारम्य सम्येन प्रवत्ता कखदेशतः । नाडिकोष्यं सुखी सूर्थः कालियाकंसमावहा ॥

Pațala VII. 16-20 :

तथा मध्ये स्थिता नाडी जलना मृत [sic. यक] (प) वाहिनी।
दिख्ये रसना व्याता नाडो रक्तप्रवाहिणी॥
संहत्ती मध्यभागेन इत्सरीयहमध्यमा।
कदिलपुष्पदार्थ जन्ममाना लधीमुखी॥
तैलविष्टि[श]खोदीमा नीधिचित्तसमावद्या।
सावधृती[ति] विजेया सहजानन्ददायिका॥
जलना प्रजासभावेन रसनीपायसंस्थिता।
घवधृती धर्मकाय: स्यादिति कायवर्थ मतं॥
घवधृती मध्यदेशे तु याद्ययाहकविर्जंता।
जलना सभीगिककायो रसना नैमांचिकी तनु:॥

corroborated by evidence from the Brahmanical Tantras and the Hathayoga literature. In the Hathayoga-pradīpikā (IV, 9) it is said that the sun and the moon determine the time in the nature of day and night whereas susumnā (the nādī in the middle) eats up the time (i.e., destroys its notion). Again while indicating the initial process of Yoga, namely, the pranavama or the regulation of breath, the same text says that the vital breath should be taken at first through the candra or moon and thrown out through the sūrya or the sun and then it should be taken through the sun and thrown out through the moon (II. 5). The same process is indicated in another śloka (II. 6) in a little different language which shows that Svatmarama, the compiler of the Hathayoga-pradipika has culled the two ślokas from two different sources. The śloka runs: the vital breath should be first taken in through the ida and thrown out through the other (i.e., pingala) and then it should be taken in through the pingala and thrown out through the left one (i.e., the ida); when this method of sūrya and candramā is practised for some time continuously all the nadts become purified after three months. In the next stage of this Yoga the initiate has to hold the vital breath within himself in suspense and to send it through the susumnā, the nādī in the middle. This is sufficient to show that the Brahmanical tradition of Hathayoga considered candra to be the same nadī as idā situated on the left and sūrya to be the same as pingalā seated on the right. Further the Hathayoga-pradīpikā (III. 33) says that ida is the goddess Ganga while pingala is the river Yamunā (idā bhagavatī gangā pingalā yamunā nadī).1

### 1 Hathayogapradipikā:

- मृथ्यांचन्द्रमसी धतः कालं राविदिवात्मकम्।
   भोको सुष्प्या कालस्य गुद्यमितदुदाहतम्॥
- 11. 5. वडपद्मासनी योगी प्राणं चन्द्रेण प्रयेत्। धारियता यथाशक्ति भ्यः स्थैण रेचयेत्। प्राणं स्थिण चाक्रण प्रयेद्दरं गनै:। विधिवत क्रथकं कता पुनयन्द्रेण रेचयेत्॥
- II. 6. प्राणं चेदिख्या पिवेतियमितं भ्योऽन्यया रेखयेत्। पौला पिङ्गलया समीरणमयो वदा त्यजेदामया। मृर्याचन्द्रमसीरनेन विधिनाभ्यासं सदा तणुतां। यदा नाडौगणा भवत्ति यमिनां मासचयाद्दंतः॥
- III. 33. इडा भगवती गङ्गा पिङ्गला यसुना नदी।

The Sāradātilaka, an authoritative Brahmanical Tantra, says¹ (I.39) that the human body has two aspects, agni and soma, and this is why the bindu also has two aspects. The right portion is called sūrya and the left nišākara, i.e., moon. It further says that in the left there is the nādī idā and on the right pingalā. Bindu is supposed to be the cause of creation and its two aspects are explained by the commentator of the Sāradātilaka as "šukram agnirūpam raktam somarūpam"—that is to say that the bindu is composed of two elements, šukra and rakta of which the former has the character of agni and the latter that of Soma. Further discusstion of bindu on this basis is found in the texts of Kashmir Saivism like the Kāmakalārilāsa of Punyānanda.² It is shown there that the bindu consists of two parts: one is white and the other is red and they represent the Siva and the Sakti.

In an unpublished work, called the Akulāgama-Taut a 3 which belongs to the Kaula school, it is pointed out that the individual soul can artain Sina by abandoning the left and the right through Yogic practice and by bringing together the two vital winds called prāṇa and apāna. In an attempt to define the left and the right it further gives a large number of terms for each. These terms may be thus classified:

- Dakşina—prāņa, palita, sūkşma, retas, sūrya, dharma, agni, sthira, para, dyau, bheda, citta, pingalā, yamunā, vidyā, bindu, rajas, bhāya.
- II. Vāma—apāna, bali, prakṛti, sthūla, rajas, candra, adharma, soma, asthira, apara, pṛthivī, abheda, acitta, idā, Jāhnavī, avidyā, nāda, tamas, abhāva.
- 1 Säradätilaka-
  - I. 39-40. चन्नीबोमात्मकी देशे विद्येद्भयात्मक: । दिखांश: चृत: मृत्यों वामभागी निज्ञाकर: । इडा वामे तनीमैंध्ये मुबुम्णा पङ्का परे ।
- 2 Kāmakalāvilāsa-
  - सितशोषिक्दुयुगलं विविक्तशिवश्रक्ति छंकुचन्प्रसरम्।
- A Nepalese MS. of this work has been recently acquired for the Bengali Manuscript ibrary, Calcutta University. For a detailed notice on this work see my edition of the aulajaananingaya, the Calcutta Oriental Series, No. III. The discussion regarding 'the bt' and 'the left' occurs in I. 98 ff. and II. 26 ff.:

जीवस्य गिवसायुज्यं योगाभ्यासेन पावति । वामद्विष् त्यका प्रावस्ति समभ्यसेत् ॥ वली [प्र]कृति विख्याता पनितं पुरुष: सृत: । स्यूलस्कादिभिभविदाविती समवस्थिती ॥ If we now classify all the terms of the two categories the two groups stand thus:

- I. Dakşina—rasanā, piñigalā, sūrya, ravi, agni, prāna, camana, kāli, bindu, upāya, yamunā, rakta[?], palita, sūkşma, retas, dharma, sthira, para, dyau, bheda, citta, vidyā, rajas, bhāva, puruṣa, śiva,—nirmāṇa-kāya and grāhya.
- II. Vāma—lalanā, iḍā, candra, ŝaŝin, soma, apāna, dhamana, āli, nāda, prajñā, gaṅgā, šukra[?], bali, sthūla. rajas, adharma, asthira, apara, pṛthivī, abheda, acitta, avidyā, tamas, a hāva, prakṛti, ŝakti;—sambhogakāya and grāhaka.¹

It is not possible for us to say anything about the nadis of which the existence is supposed by the Hathavogins within the body. It is no more possible for us to speak on the physiological changes which these yogins are supposed to experience in the initial stage of the yoga as well as in the advanced stage which brings in samadhi; but it is possible to follow these mystics up to a certain point in their use of the terms mentioned above.

When prana and camana are used for the right side and apana and dhamana for the left, it seems that air has been taken as the basis of life and hence of creation. The first two mean the inspiration and the second two expiration and in these two functions of the vital wind, within the body

रजी रेतसयोगांम म्यांचन्द्रमसी प्रिये।
धन्नांचन्द्रांचिती समान्नी तु न्दीरियो।
प्रयोगामात्मकी विद्वि चन्नोराचस्वपकी ॥
सत्याचतसमात्माती प्रक्रकृषी प्रकीर्तिती।
स्यांचन्द्रमसी क्रयी स्वरास्वरपरावरो॥
यावाप्रजीति विख्याती सदासंती(?) चराचरी।
वासुपर्याविमी(?) जीवी पच्चति वेदबास्त्रयोः॥
भेदाभिदी मोखन्त्री चित्ताचित्ती च वर्ष्यते।
इडापिज्ञलगामात्मी जाज्ञनीयसुने च ती॥
किं पुनवेद्द्रनोक्षेत विद्याविद्यात्मकी प्रिये।

<sup>1</sup> I should admit that regarding the position of some terms there is uncertainty. The Buddhist texts seem to prefer an inversion in case of dli-kāli, prajāā-upāya, rakta-śukra, and grāhaka-grāhya. The other terms of the Buddhist texts conform to the order in which they are found in the Brahmanical texts. The inversion may be due to some confusion or it may be deliberate, because it appears in some cases that the functions ascribed to the nādis are transferable. Cf. Hathayogapradīpikā, II. 6, text quoted in note 1, p. 67.

of the individual, depend many of his notions of the external world. His notion of time is absolutely dependent on it from a subjective point of view. Therefore when these two functions of the air stop notion of time also disappears. The claim of the yogin is that it is possible to stop these two functions of the wind and to hold it within (kumbhaka) and through that complete samādhi can be attained.

If the notion of time is dependent on the two functions of the vital wind, inspiration and expiration, then the implication of such terms as sūrya and candra or ravi and śaśin becomes clear. The sun and the moon are really symbols of day and night and our notion of time is also based on them. The perception of the objective world is also based on them. The direct aim of the yogin is to extirpate such notions and thus to proceed towards samādhi. This is why it has been said on so many occasions that 'the sun' and 'the moon' should be killed.

When sound is taken as the basis of creation as has been done by the sphotavadins, the question of bindu and nada or kali and ali comes in. Without going in to the subtler aspects of this problem it may be pointed out that bindu is conceived as the subtle and inaudible form of sound whereas the nada is the more audible form of it. They are characterised as cit and acit; bindu is conscious whereas nada is unconscious. It can be further pointed out that the Kasmir school of thinkers follow this line of thought still further and think that bindu and nada represent iccha and kriya or prakāša and vimarša, one meaning the desire of and the other an effort at realisation, bindu represents the desire and nada, the effort. The two terms nirmāna-kāya and sambhoga-kāya, which we have found in the Buddhist texts imply the same tendencies. The nirmana implies a tendency towards creation, whereas sambhoga, a realisation or fulfilment of that tendency. Some other terms Purusa and Prakrti, Siva and Sakti, rajas and tamas, vidyā and avidyā, retas and rajas, etc., may be explained in this light. two tendencies implied by these terms lead to creation and bind down the subject to the object, the individual to the illusory world. The yogin has got to control these two tendencies, bring about their unification and when this unification is complete the samadhi and a state of perfect bliss are attained.

प्राणापानी नादिवन्द् मूलवर्शन चैकताम्। गला योगस्य संसित्धिं गच्छतो नाव संत्रयः॥

<sup>1</sup> For determining the meaning of the two terms camana and dhamana I am indebted to my friend and colleague Mr. K. C. Chatterji. As regards the claim to stop the two functions of the air of. Hatha, III. 19:

I have left out till now the two words  $k\bar{a}li$  and  $\bar{a}li$  or 'the consonants' and 'the vowels.' It has been said before that in the use of these two terms emphasis is laid on the sound. In the consideration of these two terms, therefore, sound has been taken to be the basis of creation as in the case of bindu and  $n\bar{a}da$ . Extending the same analogy we may say that  $k\bar{a}li$ , i.e., the consonant, is the less audible expression of the  $m\bar{a}trk\bar{a}s$  whereas the  $\bar{a}li$  is their more audible expression. So far, there is no difficulty but if we say that the sound in its tendency towards expression first gives rise to the consonants and then to the vowels we would be led to a theory which is contrary to what some of the Brahmanical treatises would have us believe. 1

Last of all the two terms upāya and prajūā raise a similar difficulty. In the Buddhist texts referred to above, it is clearly said that upāya is connected with kāli, i.e., the consonants whereas prajūā with āli, i.e., the vowels. The prajūā, therefore, in conformity with the previous analogy, should be taken to be the less distinct and less conscious element whereas upāya is the more distinct and more conscious element.

But  $k\bar{a}li$  and  $\bar{a}li$ ,  $up\bar{a}ya$  and  $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$  may be explained from another point of view and this time along the  $Yamun\bar{a}$  and  $Ga\bar{n}g\bar{a}$ . The natural relation of these two rivers is that  $Ga\bar{n}g\bar{a}$  is the more important river and the  $Yamun\bar{a}$  being only its tributary supplies water to it and the former feeds on that water. Thus  $Ga\bar{n}g\bar{a}$  is the  $gr\bar{a}haka$  and  $Yamun\bar{a}$  is the  $gr\bar{a}hya$ . In conformity with this analogy  $\bar{a}li$  is the more important sound as it is more audible and  $k\bar{a}li$  for its expression depends on the help received from the  $\bar{a}li$ , i.e., the vowels. In other words the consonants can be distinctly pronounced only with the help of vowels and from this point of view  $k\bar{a}li$  is the  $gr\bar{a}haka$  and  $\bar{a}li$  is the  $gr\bar{a}hya$ . In the same way if  $up\bar{a}ya$  involves a certain desire ( $icch\bar{a}$ ) for self-expression  $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$  (sapience) can be said to be dependent on it; the candra (moon) also depends on the  $s\bar{u}rya$  (sun) for its self-expression. Thus  $praj\bar{n}\bar{a}$  is the  $gr\bar{a}haka$ ,  $up\bar{a}ya$  the  $gr\bar{a}hya$  and candra is the  $gr\bar{a}haka$ ,  $s\bar{u}rya$  the  $gr\bar{a}hya$ .

श्रकार: सर्वेवर्षे भ्य: प्रकाश: प्रम: श्रव:। इकारोऽन्यकलाद्यो विमर्शांख्य: प्रकीर्तित:॥

Besides, of the two words vyanjana and svara, the former is etymologically associated with darkness (afijana) and the latter with light "that which is self-existent."

<sup>1</sup> As to the theory which occurs in the Brahmanical texts, cf. the passage of the litareyo Aranyaka discussed infra; also the passage quoted by Amrtanandanatha in his commentary on Yoginihrdayadipika under I. 14:

On this analogy the other terms pingalā and idā, agni and soma also may be explained. Pingalā seems to be the agni, fire, as it indicates the colour of fire (pingala) whereas idā which means 'nourishment' is taken as 'the personification of the offering.' Soma is also the offering. This offering which is meant for the gods is without any value unless it gets the help of the agni which is supposed to carry it to the proper destination. It seems that as if idā the 'personified offering' wants to reach the gods and she avails herself of the help of agni to reach there. Idā is therefore the grāhaka and agni is the grāhya.

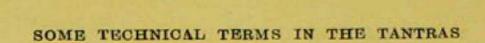
I do not want to earry this analogy further. But from what I have said it is probably clear that the two categories of terms which I have discussed, apart from the mechanism of Hathayoga, seem to have been selected according to certain principles. As in almost all the texts greater emphasis is laid on the terms pingalā and idā and agni and soma, terms connected with the sacrifice, it seems that according to some thinkers the sacrifice performed outside had also its counterpart within the body! and through an extension of this analogy some terms relating to the external sacrifice were applied to indicate the old notions of some functions of the basic elements within the body.

There is no doubt that some of these notions are very old. The Chandogya-upanisad, which is in parts obscure for its mystic trend, contains a passage which is significant (VIII. 1.3): "The space within is as vast as the external sky. In both of these are united the earth and the heaven, the fire and the air, the sun and the moon, the lightning and constellations, whatever relates to one also relates to the other."

In many places of the Chāndogya as well as of other upanişads references are made to hṛdayasya nādyāḥ i.e., the nādīs within the body. In the Chāndogya (VIII. 6.1) these nādīs are once called pingalā because the sun is pingala. The reason for this is thus given: "As a route established between two villages connects both, so the rays of the sun goes to both the worlds and from the sun above are propagated in the nādīs."

Elsewhere in the Chāndogya (III. 13) it is said that the vital air within, passes through five different channels (suṣi) and of these five the prāṇa is the eastern channel, it is the eye, the sun (āditya), and the force (tejas)......the apāna is the western channel, it is the spiech, the fire—the vyāna is the southern channel, it is the ear, the moon (candra)."

<sup>1</sup> The fundamental principle of the tantras on this point has been clearly brought out by Sir John Woodroffe: Shakti and Shakta, p. 408—" the man is a Microcosm; whatever exists is the outer universe exists in him."



But a somewhat different idea is also recorded in the *Chāndogya* (I. 3) when it is said that  $vy\bar{a}na$  is the combination of the  $pr\bar{a}na$  and  $ap\bar{a}na$  and it is the speech because inspiration and expiration stops when

one speaks.

Now the speech which is here said to combine in it the two motions of the vital air consists of the consonants and the vowels, vyanjana and svara which are described in the later texts as kāli and āli, as the sun and the moon, the day and the night. A similar idea is contained in the Aitareya-Aranyaka (II. 2.4) where it is said: vyanjanaireva rātrī-rāpnuvanti svarai-rahāni, i.e., "night is obtained through the consonants, and day through the vowels." In the Buddhist texts there is an inversion of this notion.

Finally, I cannot help referring to two passages of the Atharvaveda in this connection. In the Atharva XI. 4.12 and 21 certain ideas are expressed which seem to bear comparison to what I have said:

- 12. The Prāṇa is the sun and the moon, the Prāṇa is the Prajāpati.
- 21. The hamsa does not take one of his feet from the water, if he had done so there would be no more to-day and to-morrow, no more day and night. 1

## SOME ASPECTS OF BUDDHIST MYSTICISM IN THE CARYAPADAS

The Caryapadas were published for the first time by the late Dr. H. P. Shastri from an old manuscript discovered in Nepal. The work is a collection of 50 Caryapadas, of which three are now missing; they were composed by various authors like Sarahapāda, Kānhupāda (alias Kṛṣṇācārya), Bhusuku, Dombi, all of whom appear in the list of 84 Siddhas who had flourished some time between the 10th and 12th centuries A. D. As the manuscript was unique and as the language of the text was unfamiliar the learned editor could not settle the text in a satisfactory way. Since then Dr. S. K. Chatterji has studied the language of these texts and characterised it as old Bengali 2 (The Origin and Development of the Bengali Language, I, p. 112). Some time ago Dr. Shahidullah re-edited the Caryas of Saraha and Kanhu in the appendix to his work-Les Chants Mystiques, but for the want either of a second manuscript or of a Tibetan translation the text could not be settled to his entire satisfaction though many improvements were made. The main thesis of Dr. Shahidullah being the study of Dohās he had no occasion to pay special attention to the esoteric doctrines of the Caryas.

The Tibetan translation of the text so long searched for in vain is however preserved in the Bstan-hgyur, Vol. XLVII, 35 (Cordier, Catalogue II, p. 225)—the Spyod pa'i glu'i mdsed kyi 'grel pa shes bya ba—the Caryāgītikoŝa-vṛtti-nāmā (Narthang, XLVII, pp. 161-205). The work,

Bauddha Gan O Doha, publication of the Vangiya Sahitya Parigat, Calcutta. A second revised edition of the book prepared by me in collaboration with Dr. S. K. Chatterji, M.A., D.Lit. (London), is in course of impression.

<sup>2</sup> Dr. S. K. Chatterji has given his reasons in detail in his book. The most definite Bengali characteristics of this language are: the genitive in—éra, ara (収入, 収入), dative in ré (元), locative in ta (元), post-positional words like mājha (和元), antara (如元), sānga (如元), past and future bases in ·il·, ·ib· (元元, 元), and not ·al·, ·ab· of Bihari, present participle in ·anta (如元) conjunctive in ilé (元元), passive in ·ia (元元), substantive roots āch (如元), and thāk (如元), and not thik (如元) of Maithili or thā of Oriyā and a number of Bengali idioms. But it is strange that Mr. Jayaswal in his Presidential address to the 7th All-India Oriental Conference of Baroda, without any reference to the work of Dr. Chatterji and without going into the philological evidence adduced by him, has formally accepted the theory of Rev. R. Sankrityāyana, that the language of the Caryāpadas is old Bihari. This theory formulated by the latter for the first time in the Hindi Magazine Gañgā has no critical value whatsoever.

which contains the translation of both the Caryas and their Sanskrit Commentary, was compiled by Munidatta and translated by Kirticandra in the city of Yambu in Nepal.

The Tibetan translation helps us in determining the exact name of the work. Dr. H. P. Shastri published the work under the caption Caryacaryaviniscaya which is however not found anywhere in the text. But it was certainly not his invention. In the opening verse of the Sanskrit commentary on the first Carya attributed to Luvi-pada it is said-श्रोलयीचरणादि-सिद्धरचितेऽप्याश्रय्येचर्याचरं [MS. has —इत्याश्र] which is translated in Tibetan as-"dpal ldan Lū yi shabs sogs grub pa rnams kyis gsuos sin ya (? sin tu) mtshan spyod pa'i glu yi thogs." Thus the name of the text which appears in the Sanskrit verse as Aścarya-caryācaya1 is also translated as the "very wonderful Carya songs." It therefore seems that the name chosen by Dr. Shāstrī was based on a wrong reading of the title-Caryāścarya-viniścaya which however was not exactly quoted but suggested in the Sanskrit verse referred to. The name preserved in Tibetan Caryagitikośa-vrtti refers to the commentary and thus Caryagitikośa might have been another name under which the collection of the Caryās was known.

The special terminology which has been used in the Caryas for preaching the esoteric doctrines is characterised in the text as Sandhyābhāṣā. Paṇḍit Vidhuśekhara Shāstrī 2 with the help of a large number of texts pointed out that it should be corrected as Sandhā-bhāṣā meaning "intentional speech" and not "the twilight language" as Dr. H. P. Shāstrī maintained and as some scholars still continue to maintain in spite of what has been said to the contrary. The Tibetan translation of the Caryapadas and their commentary now amply confirms what Pandit

Vidhusekhara Shāstrī suggested.

In some places of the Sanskrit commentary the words abhisandhya and sandhyayā (to be corrected as sandhayā) occur in the same sense : p. 8-(Comm. on the Carya of Virava) gurupadesad abhisandhya, p. 11 -(the Carya of Catilla), nadi-sandhyaya boddhanyam, p. 29-(the 'arya of Mahidhara), Cittagajendrasandhyayā tamevārtham pratipādayati, p. 40-(the Carya of Kanhu) sandhyaya pranapanam ...... parikalpya. In all these cases abhisandhya and sandhyayā (sic sandhayā) are translated in Tibetan as "dgons pa'i skad kyis," i.e., by means of intentional language.

I Pandit Vidhusekhara Shastri suggested this as the correct form of the title in a note published in the Bengali Journal Prabasi. 27 .H.Q., 4, 1928, 287 ff.

In several other cases the same sense is brought out by the words vyāja and utprekṣā: p. 16—(the Caryā of Kambala) karuṇāvyājena........... karuṇeti sandhyā (sie. sandhā)-bhāṣayā utprekṣālaṅkāraparaṁ boddhavyaṁ, p. 18—(the Caryā of Kānhu) sandhyābhāṣayā (sie.) tamevārtham ntprekṣayantaḥ, p. 26—(the Caryā of Dombi) naukāpravāhavyājena prakatayati and p. 73—(the Caryā of Bhusukupāda) baṅgālikāvyājena tamevārthaṁ pratipādayati. In all these cases again the words vyāja and utprekṣā are rendered into Tibetan by "dgońs pa"i skad kyis," i.e., by means of intentional language. The word "dgońs pa" means—to purpose, to intend, to think, to cogitate, etc. Though it does not faitbfully bring out the sense of vyāja and utprekṣā still it becomes clear that though sandhā primarily meant 'intention' in these cases it was used in a technical sense to mean a particular way of expression to explain the mystic doctrines as intended by the speaker by analogy (vyāja, utprekṣā).

In the Caryapadas the mystic doctrines have often been described by analogy and for this purpose a number of images has been chosen. I will first of all discuss these images.

(i) The image of boat-In the Caryas Nos. 13, 14 and 38, attributed respectively to Kanhu, Dombi and Saraba, the image of boat and the analogy of rowing have been used to explain some of the doctrines. While commenting on these songs the Sanskrit commentary warns us naukā sandhyābhāşayā boddhavyam, naukāpravāha-vyājena) prakatayati, kāyanaukāvyājena pratipādayati or kāyam naukām parikalpya, etc. In No. 3 Kānhu says that he has made a boat of the three refuges (triŝarana) and has mastered the eight (divine powers). Thus has he crossed the ocean of the world after having counted all the waves in the mid-sea. The five tathagatas are his oars and the citta is the helmsman. Thus has he proceeded to the island of Great Bliss. In No. 14 Dombipada says that the boat plies between the Ganga and the Yamuna and there the old Mātangī takes the yogins to the other bank without effort. Dombipada urges himself to ply the boat with the five oars. He says that the rope should be tied well on the back, water which may enter into the boat through the joints should be thrown out with the help of the secani which is the sky (gagana). The Sun and the Moon, the two wheels of creation and destruction, should be converted into parts of the boat. The boat thus taken plies at ease, and the two banks become no longer visible. In No. 38, the song of Saraha, the kaya is the boat, the purified mind is the oar and advices of the Guru are the sails. Advice is given that while plying the boat it should be always kept near the Sahaja and as there



are difficulties on the way the boat should always keep near the Kūla when going against the strong current. Thus only it can reach the sky (gagana).

Kambalāmbarapāda in his Caryā (No. 8) uses again the image of boat. He says—"Kambala has filled his boat of compassion (karnņā) with gold and there is no place for silver in it. He wants to take the boat towards the sky. He has now uprooted the post to which the boat was fixed and takes the boat keeping near the right and left sides. He attains the Great Bliss on the way."

- (ii) The image of rat—In one of the Songs of Bhusukupāda the image of rat is used (No. 21) and in this case also the commentary says that mūṣaka sandhyā-vacanena pratipādayati. The author says: "The night is dark and the play of the rat begins. The rat drinks the nectar. Kill this rat-wind so that the coming and going may be stopped. The rat brings in transmigration and digs holes. The rat which thus brings in calamities has no colour. When it ascends the sky (gagana) and drinks the nectar there, it becomes restless. It is then to be pacified with the advice of the Guru. When the play of the rat is thus stopped the ties are broken asunder."
- (iii) The image of the stringed musical instrument, Vīṇā.—In the Caryāpada No. 17 the Siddha Vīṇāpāda uses the analogy of a Vīṇā. He says that he has made a new kind of Vīṇā of which the sun is the gourd, the moon is the string, and the Avadhūtī is the stand (dāṇḍī) which produces sound even without being struck. Vīṇāpāda says—"Friend, hark the Heruka-vīṇā is being played. The notes of the string are being heard. The best of elephants on hearing the sounds, āli and kāli, now enter the samarasa. When the striker presses (the string) the sounds of the 32 strings spread everywhere, the king then dances and the queen sings. This is the Buddha-nāṭaka."
- (iv) The image of elephant—In the last song we have already found reference to an elephant which is called the best of elephants—gajavara. In a large number of the Caryāpadas use is made of the image of the elephant but ithe most important case where the image has been fully worked out is in the song of Mahīdharapāda, No. 16. The commentary on this song says—cittagajendra-sandhyayā pratipādayati. Mahīdharapāda says: "Along the three planks (pāṭa) terrible noise, not produced by any agent but spontaneous, is being heard. At this noise both the māra and the world are destroyed. The great elephant, the Citta, now runs towards the end of the sky and rubs the sun and

the moon together. After demolishing the posts and breaking the chains which are the merits and the demerits the elephant now runs towards the sound in the sky and enters into the nirvāṇa-lake. There he drinks the great wine, mahārasa. He is now indifferent towards the three worlds and is the conqueror of the five objects of senses. He has now entered deep (into the sky) and nobody can see him." Kānhu in some of his songs uses the image of elephant. In Caryā No. 9 he compares himself with the elephant and says—"After having broken the two posts evam, and torn asunder the various chains Kānhu has entered the lotus forest of Sahaja and has become intoxicated by drinking the wine. And now just as the elephant throws rut at the she-elephant the citta is pouring the tathatā wine." In Caryā No. 12 in connection with another image Kānhu again uses the image of elephant and says that he has destroyed the five (objects) with the help of the elephant.

- (v) The image of deer—Bhusukupāda in one of his songs (No. 6), makes use of the image of a deer. The Sanskrit commentary says: Bhusukupāda hariņā-śabda sandhyābhāṣayā kathayati. Bhusuku says—"The hunters have surrounded the forest and their cry is being heard. The deer has become his own enemy for his flesh. The hunters do not leave Bhusuku (the deer) for a moment. The deer now gives up his food and drink. The doe advises the deer to leave the forest and to go (with her). The deer runs away so fast that even his hoofs cannot be seen."
- (vi) The analogy of union-In some of the Caryapadas the authors address some female companion and say that marriage with her has led to the attainment of great bliss. Thus in song No. 10 Kanhupada addresses a Dombi, a low-caste woman, and the Sanskrit commentary clearly says ... dombiśabdah sandhyābhāṣayā kathayati. Kānhu says : "Oh Dombi, you live outside the city but how is it that you have now dared to touch the son of a Brahmana. But oh Dombi, I will live with you because I am only a naked Yogin who uses the skull (for drinking) and is hated by all. The lotus is one but it has 64 petals and the Dombi is now dancing on it. She is now eating the lotus stalk in the lake. I shall now get hold of her and reach the other shore." In song No. 19 Kanhu describes his marriage with the Dombi, in the following terms: The existence (bhava) and nirvana, and the mind and the vital air (manapabana) are serving as different musical instruments. Kanhu is going to marry the Dombi. After marrying her he has now stopped further birth, and got the anuttara world as the dowry. He is now spending his time in her company surrounded by the Yoginis in great bliss.

Whoever has once lived with the Dombi can never leave her for a moment and is maddened by the Sahaja bliss."

- (vii) The analogy of the fermentation of wine—Viruvapada in one of his Caryas (No. 3) introduces the analogy of the fermentation of wine. He says: "The female wine-dealer (sundini) is alone but she enters both the chambers and introduces the powder (?) for fermenting the wine. The wine now flows straight towards the Sahaja and that brings immortality. On seeing the sign (of the wine) at the tenth door the customer comes of himself and after visiting the 64 stations enters without leaving any sign behind. The pipe of the vessel is narrow and therefore the wine should be sent through it carefully."
- (viii) Analogy of carding the cotton—In Caryapada No. 26 Santipada uses the analogy of cotton-carding, He says: "I have carded the cotton to fine threads and again reduced these threads to non-entity, but still I have not been able to get at the Heruka. While carding the cotton I have gone to sky (\$\sin unya)\$. The two ways on either sides are no longer seen and nothing enters into the sky. There is no cause and effect. I can be only perceived by my own self."

In the images of the boat the words which serve as the key to the mystic significance are—the boat, the five oars, the helmsman, the way along which the boat sails, the posts to which the boat is fixed before starting, the rope by which it is fixed, and the secani by which water is thrown out from the boat, and finally the destination of the boat.

The boat stands for karuṇā, compassion, which is explained as bodhicitta (8), the triŝaraṇa which is explained in the commentary as "the refuge of the three—" (kāya, vāk, citta) or in other words, the mahāsukhakāya in which these disappear (13), the śukranādikā which is located within the middlemost nādī, viz., avadhūtikā (14), and last of all for kāya (38) by which evidently mahāsukhakāya is again meant.

The five oars stand for the five tathāgatas (13). The five tathāgatas are explained as the purified body (of which the five tathāgatas presiding over the five senses are the essence). In one case the mana (38) which combines in itself the essence of the five senses in its purified state is

<sup>े</sup> कर्यित सन्याभाषया [sic. सन्धाभाषया ] तमेव बोधिवित्तं नावो [com. 8]; तिश्रवीत्यादि तयं कायवाक्वित्तम्। यिक्षन् चतुर्ये श्रवी लीनं गतं तं महासुखकायं नीका सन्याभाषया बोडव्यम् [com. 13]; यक्षनाडिका विरमानन्दावधूतिकायाः मध्ये वर्णते। सा एव नीः सन्याभाषया बीडव्या [com. 14]; काष्यवाविड—भाधाराध्यसम्बन्धेन कायंनीकां परिकल्पा [com. 38].

compared with the oars. Elsewhere (13) this idea has led to the comparison of the citta with the helmsman karnadhāra.

The two posts to which the boat is fixed stand for the illusion of the phenomenal world, ābhāsadoṣaṁ (8). The rope by which the boat is tied to the post stands for the bodhicitta (14) in its sāṁvṛttika or impure worldly state and also for avidyāsūtra, i.e., tie of illusion (8). The secanī by which the water or the impurities that may come in are to be thrown out stands for the śūnya or vacuity (14).2

The path along which the boat is to sail is the middlemost one in which both the right and left are combined (8), that is located between the Ganga and the Yamuna (14), and along this path which is full of dangers the boat has to proceed against the current (38).3

The destination is described as mahāsukha—the knowledge of nairātmā (8), the mahāsukhacakradvīpa, i.e., the island of great bliss situated in the [ocean of] vacuity (13), the jinapura explained as the city of great bliss (14) and the gagana, i.e., the vacuity (38).4

These images imply certain Yogic processes. The principal idea is that the boat is to be safely taken to the island of great bliss along the middle path steering clear away from the two sides. It is fixed to the two posts by means of a rope which should be torn asunder. The island of great bliss is situated in the ocean of vacuity.

The boat is the bodhicitta which is the semen virile (sukra). It is claimed that by certain Yogic practices it can be carried up to the head. In the ordinary state it remains restless and binds one to the illusory

- े विग्रह पश्चतवागतात्मकं खर्दशं केलिपातं परिकल्पा...स्तन्धव धातुव तवेन्द्रियाचि, पश्चेव पश्चेव स्वत्रभेदाः। तवागताधिष्ठित एक एकश्चः, संसारकश्चांचि कृती भवन्ति॥ [com. 13]. मनोविश्वानं किलिपातश्च [com. 38]; सञ्चाकारवरीपेतश्चतामार्गं चित्रकर्णधारं समारीष्य [com. 13].
- उत्था क्षाभासदीयम्। किक्का क्षियास्क [com]; किक्का मिष्मूलं गतम्, तदेव बोधिक्तं सहजानन्देन विधतं सद वैमल्यक्रोइ मैन प्रवाष्टं क्रकः। गगनदृखीलकं चतुर्थाभिषेकेण सिक्मानं योगोन्द्रस्य कार्ये पानीयं विषयोज्ञीलनं विभितः। [com. 14].
- वासदिचयमाभासदयं मध्यमायां प्रवेशयिता [com. 8]; गङ्गायसुनित सन्यया चन्द्राभासस्थाभासी याद्ययाद्वती [com. 14]; खानपानविषयासिक्तिन साधको यदा मार्गभटो भवति चवधूतौ गला जहातीति । [com. 38].

world. In that state it is sāmertlika but when it is carried upwards it loses its restless character and produces a state of great bliss. In this state it is Pāramārthika. It then becomes the source of supreme qualities to the Yogin. When the bodhicitta proceeds upwards as the result of a sort of revolution within, there is introversion of all the faculties of the senses, and of the vital wind. They then, without becoming the source of distraction to the Yogin and of his bondage to the illusory world, all help him in his march to the higher plane where he enjoys a state of great bliss. Now while this introversion or internal revolution takes place the bodhicitta in its upward march follows three principal channels, called the nādīs. Connexion with the external world still continues and is not completely severed. This connexion totally ceases at a stage where the three meet together to form a single channel only. This is implied by saying that the boat should steer clear of the two paths on the right and left which are full of daugers.

The revolution is brought about by meditating on the vacuity (śūnya-samādhi) and through further concentration on it the influx of the illusion of the objective world can be stopped. This is why the vacuity has been compared with the secanī and it has been said that if any water enters the boat through its leakage it should be thrown out with the help of this secanī.

In the image of rat, the rat itself stands for the cittapabana—the vital air which is ordinarily restless like the rat. As long as the darkness of night remains the rat moves on and drinks the nectar stealthily. Similarly, as long as the instruction of the Guru is not obtained and the restlessness of the vital air is not stopped it contributes to the loss of the bodhicitla but when it becomes quiet there is no more loss, the Sahaja bliss is then attained and the worldly ties are broken.<sup>2</sup>

t The Yogic method by which the bodhicitta can be carried upwards is referred to in many places of the present text. Cf. also the quotation from Sekoddesa, a work now lost, in the commentary to the Carya No. 3.

यावन्नी पतित प्रभाखरमय: ग्रोतांशधाराद्रवी देवीपग्रदलोदरे समरसीभृती जिनानां गर्थे:। स्र्रुज्जेद [sio. MS. स्रूरत] वज्ञिखायत: करुणया भिन्नं जगन्कारणं गर्ज्ञां द्वीकरुणायलस्य सङ्जं जानीहि द्वं विभु:॥

मृषकः सन्धावचने वित्तपवनः बोड्यः। निश्चि प्रज्ञा कम्पाँ इना वा बोड्या। तथाः कम्पाँ इनाया विचितादिचये कायानन्दादियापारवारेण...बोधिवित्तासताखादाहारं स एव स्पकः चित्तपवनः खर्यं करोति। [com. 21].

The same Yogic process which has been explained above is again implied here. The rat is the vital air in its restless state before the revolution takes place. This is why the bodhicitta also remains restless in its sāmvṛttika state and is subject to loss and decay. This is implied by saying that the rat in the darkness of the night drinks the nectar stealthily. But after the revolution the vital air ascends upwards, gets pacified, helps in pacifying the bodhicitta which then attains the pāramārthika state and brings about the Sahaja bliss.

In the image of the stringed instrument ( $Fin\bar{a}$ ) the words which are important are—the gourd, the strings and the stand ( $d\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$ ) to which these are fitted. The gourd is the  $S\bar{u}rya$  and the string, the Candra. These represent the two  $n\bar{a}d\bar{i}s$  on both sides and the stand represents the avadhūtī, the  $n\bar{a}d\bar{i}$  in the middle. When the first two are brought together and fixed on to the middle one a music which is not produced by any agent but spontaneous is heard within and this music is resounded in all the  $n\bar{a}d\bar{i}s$ . When this music is heard by the gajavara, the best elephant [which is explained as the citta], it proceeds upwards to drink the samarasa. When the music continues, the king, i.e., the Yogin dances and the queen, i.e.,  $Nair\bar{a}tma-yogin\bar{i}$  sings.

The image of the stringed musical instrument has close similarity with the analogy of cotton-carding used by Sāntipāda in Caryā No. 26. The instrument used for carding the cotton is also a stringed instrument consisting of a stand to which the string is fixed. When the string is struck against the cotton, the cotton gradually gets reduced to fine threads. The cotton here stands for the illusory world.<sup>2</sup>

According to the mechanism of the Yoga already referred to, when the revolution takes place and the faculties of the senses are on their upward move the internal nādīs are said to receive the currents and vibrate. This vibration becomes gradually more and more intense till at last the objective world disappears from view and the Yogin finds himself established in the vacuity. This is the state that is described by the present image. As the movement of the string continues, the cotton, i.e., the illusory world, gradually gets reduced to non-entity and dualistic

<sup>े</sup> स्योभासं तु विनाकारस्त्रे स्य चन्द्राभासेन तिक्षकाच । विषयचको भवध्तिकया सह एकोक्तव्य भनाइतदिक्षकायां लगाविका...भनाइतं घोषयिन । [राजिल ] वीकापादा वज्घरपदिन मृत्यं कुर्व्यत्ति । तिषां देवी योगिनी नैराकादिकाय गीतिकया सङ्गायनमङ्गलं कुर्व्यत्ति ।

विति प्रकृतिदीयलात् तुलनयोग्यवैलीकां कायनाक् चिक्तम् [com. 26].

knowledge is altogether stopped. When the state of vacuity is attained there is no more effect of causality and no more disturbance of the peace. This state is said to be indescribable.

In the image of the stringed musical instrument and instrument for carding cotton we have seen that there is the question of a sound-a sound that is spontaneous and not produced by any agent-which vibrates in the different internal nadis and particularly in the three principal ones. the image of elephant (Carya No. 16) there is again the question of this sound which is heard along the three planks 2 or the principal nadis (?). The elephant which stands for the citta in this case is maddened by this sound and marches at once upwards to the sky, i.e., the vacuity. He rubs the sun and the moon together and demolishes the two posts and breaks the chains which bind him to them. The sun and the moon and the two posts which are explained as merit and demerit stand for the illusion of the material world which has two aspects. We have seen before that as long as the citta does not reach the point where the two nadis, the left and the right, do not get united with the middle one and form altogether one single channel, the influx of illusion continues. When the citta attains that point in its upward march it reaches the vacuity without any hindrance at all, drinks the nectar there and enjoys the great bliss. This has been brought out by saying that the elephant has now reached the end of the sky3 and has become mad after drinking the great wine. It is this sense which has been brought out in the other images of the elephant which has been referred to. When it is said that the citta is pouring tathatā wine the meaning seems to be that the citta in its ultimate state of reality permeates itself with blissfulness.4

The image of the deer has more philosophical than mystical significance. The deer in this image stands for the citta or citta-pabana, the

- भ चड्यत्वादिसान् मार्गवरे इयाकारं न विद्यते। [com. 26].
- पाटवयं कायानन्दादिकं · · · अनाइतिमिति य्न्यतायन्दम् ।
- ै. स एव प्रमत्तो हि चित्तगजिन्द्रम्थंदिवाराविविकत्त्रं घोलयिला...पापपुच्यो संसारपाग्री ही खच्छियला... भविद्यास्तमं महं थिला...निर्व्यायस्रोवरं गतः।...चित्तगजिन्द्रः गगनाङ्गनं महासुखचकस्रोवरं गला मिलितः। [com. 16].

एकारचन्द्राभास दंकार: स्याः उभयं दिवाराविज्ञानं वाखीडसभावयं नद्विता...निवनीवनं नहासुख-कमलं क्रता निर्व्यंकस्पाकार क्रीडन्तीत। [com. 9].

• यथा बाद्यकरी करिष्णमीर्थ्यामदं बहति। तदद्वगवतीनैरात्मासङ्गतया चित्तगजिन्द्रक्षणाचार्ययादाः तथतामदं प्रवर्षन्ति। [com. 9]. vital air. The vital air is ordinarily restless like the deer and as long as it remains restless it is associated with the material world and is subject to all the miseries of the world. This is why it has been said that the deer is surrounded by the hunters on all sides and is his own enemy for his flesh. This flesh, i.e., his association with the material world, stands in the way of his translation to the higher sphere. At this stage the doe comes in and advises the deer to leave the forest surrounded by the hunters and to go over to another where no such troubles exist. The doe is the Jāānamudrā or the Nairātmā and the other forest is the forest of the lotus—the great bliss. This last only has Yogic implications and suggests that there is the question of the march of the Sakti upwards to the topmost Cakra, the Cakra of great bliss.

In the analogies of union a Dombi plays the most important part and that serves as the key to the inner meaning of the image. She lives outside the city, dances on the lotus with 64 petals and eats up the lotus stalk. When the Yogin proceeds to marry her the bhava, existence and nirvāṇa and the mind and the vital air all act in concert as musical instruments. Dombi is explained as the Nāirātmā or the avadhūtī, purified. Avadhūtī is the middle nādī, and as soon as it is purified through the removal of the influx of illusion the Sakti which is characterised as Nairātmā in these texts ascends upwards, reaches the vacuity where the lotus with 64 petals is located. When it is said that the Dombi eats up the root of the lotus the implication seems to be that the way by which further influx of illusion upwards may be possible is destroyed.

The analogy of the fermentation of wine leads to an image of a different kind. Though this image is not quite clear in all its details the central idea is suggested by the two words—śundini and vārunī, i.c., the female wine-dealer and the wine. The śundini stands for the avadhūtikā which we have seen is no other than the nairātmā or the Śakti that marches upwards. The vārunī—the wine, stands for the sāmvrttika bodhicitta or the semen virile. I have already said that according to a particular belief of the Yogins when the Śakti marches upwards through

स्वयं क्रताविद्यामात्मध्यदोषेण चा बल्यतया पुनः स एव चित्तहरिणं सब्वेषा बहुवेरी ।

<sup>ै</sup> इरिकीति। सन्याभाषया सेव ज्ञानसुद्रा हैरात्मा। भावकस्थासप्रकर्षवद्यात् आश्वास' [ददाति] भी वित्तहरिक अस्य कायवनस्य कायग्रहं यन्त्रहासुखकमलवनं गला...[com. 6].

<sup>े</sup> डोम्बीति परिग्रहावधृती नेरात्मा बोह्या। [com. 10] नगरिकेति। धपादिविषयसमूर्धं तस्य वाश्चे। इन्द्रियाणामगोचरत्नेन...तवागारं महासुखचक्रम्। सद्येकं निर्माणचक्रम चतु:पष्टिद्लयुक्तं तत्र स्थिता भगवत्या नेरात्मया सह एकरसत्या महारागानन्दसन्दरी हि क्षणाचार्यो स्थित।

the different  $n\bar{a}d\bar{i}s$  the sukra or the  $s\bar{a}mvrittika$  bodhicitta also proceeds upwards to the head. The aim of the Yogin is to see that it proceeds quietly through the middle  $n\bar{a}d\bar{i}$  and gets accumulated in the Vajramani in the head and loses its restless character.\(^1\) The bodhicitta then attains the  $p\bar{a}ram\bar{a}rthika$  state and becomes conducive to the attainment of supreme bliss. This process is implied in the present image. When it is said that though the  $sundin\bar{i}$  is alore she enters both the chambers the implication is that she brings the two, the sun and the moon together and sends them through the middle one.\(^2\) The wine, i.e., the sukra, at this stage is made to enter it and goes upwards to produce the Sahaja bliss. The customer\(^3\) who comes of himself on seeing the signs of wine seems to be the citta who now enters (the vacuity) without leaving any sign behind and drinks the nectar from the lotus of great bliss.

In most of the Caryās therefore the bodhicitta and its cultivation for higher purposes take the most important place. The bodhicitta alone is the source of compassion (karuṇā) which is so important in the Mahāyāna, it can render supreme bliss to the initiated and enables him to free himself from the grasp of the illusory world. The bodhicitta in its exoteric aspect is equally important in the earlier Mahāyāna. It has been interpreted there by the scholars as "the resolution to attain bodhi." In the early Mahāyāna practices also, "this resolution to attain Bodhi." enables the initiated to proceed in his spiritual exercises and to be the master of compassion and save every being of the world from misery by leading him to bodhi (cf. Dutt, Aspects of Mahayana Buddhism, p. 302).

But in early Mahāyāna the esoteric aspect of the bodhicitta (i.e., the bodhicitta in the sense of śukra) seems to have already developed. In my note on the word Parāvṛtti (see infra) I have emphasised on the

1. श्रमणिणिखरग्रसिरे अवस्पीति। सुखश्मीदलात् वीधिचित्तं वश्यति। सैव पूर्वोक्ता-वधृतिका संवित्तपरमायंसयस्यं घटतीति कला...तया गुक्रनाडिकया गुरोक्पदेशात् तमपतितं वीधिचित्तं स्येया कला निसरक्षक्षेण चालय—

परमायंबोधिचित्तं हदीकुवैद्वाह — सहजेति । वजप्रमादात् विरमानन्देन सहजानन्दं स्थिरीकत्य... वाक्षणीति सन्धावचनेन तदेव संवित्तवोधिचित्तं बोड्यम् । तस्य बोधिचित्तस्य साधिवानगतस्याचरमुखपात्रेन वन्धनं क्रता...

एकदा षट्पथयोगात् सा अवध्ितका ग्रन्थिनो ऊर्वनासा चिंग्यकारम् चन्द्रस्थौ वासदिचणी...
 दी सन्ध्यति सध्यसायां प्रवेशयति ।

गर्भः सत्त्वी हि स्वयमेवागत्य तेन दारेण प्रविष्य महासुखकमलरसपानेन मृचितं प्रीणनं करति।

implications of the word in its connection with maithuna—sexual act. If my interpretation of the word is accepted then we should admit that already when the Sūtrālamkāra was composed by Asauga the Buddhists believed in a Yogic practice by which it was possible to turn the flow of the semen virile inwards and to produce a state of supreme blissfulness caused by this inflow. In a passage of the Sikṣūsamuccaya of Sāntideva, Bodhicitta is exactly used in a similar sense:

bodhicittakalalah krpārbuda maitrapeširacalāšaye ghanah |
bodhi-angamanupūrvasambhavo Buddhagarbha ayam sampravardhate ||
(Sikṣā., V, p. 103.),

"The bodhicitta is the germ, the second stage of growth is compassion the third is maitrī or brotherly love which is firm and solid, and then the elements of the bodhi grow stage by stage till the Buddha-embryo is fully developed."

## CENTRAL LIBRARY

### A NOTE ON THE WORD PARAVETTI

The word parāvṛtti occurs in several verses of the Sūtrālamkāra of Asanga in connection with acts which constitute the supreme greatness of Buddha (vibhutvam bauddham). These acts are pañcendriyaparāvṛtti, i e., parāvṛtti of the five senses; manaso'pi°—i.e., parāvṛtti of the mind, sārthodgraha°—i.e., parāvṛtti of receiving the objects of senses, vikalpa°—i.e., parāvṛtti of the act of differentiation; pratiṣṭhāyāh°—i.e., parāvṛtti of the place of existence (?) and lastly maithunasya°—i.e., parāvṛtti of sexual act. The verses are—

## मनोइत्तिभेदेन विभुत्वभेदं दर्शयति-

पचेन्द्रियपरावृत्ती विभूनं लभ्यते परम् ।
सर्वार्यवृत्ती सर्वा गुणशद्यतीदरे ॥४१॥
सनमोऽपि परावृत्ती विभुनं लभ्यते परम् ।
विभूनानृत्वरे जाने निर्व्विकत्ये सुनिर्मेले ॥४२॥
सार्थोद्गृहपरावृत्ती विभूनं लभ्यते परम् ।
चित्रयुद्धी यथाकामं भोगसंदर्थनाय हि ॥४३॥
विकत्यस्य परावृत्ती विभुनं लभ्यते परम् ।
पन्याघाते सदाकालं सर्वा जानकर्माणाम् ॥४४॥
प्रतिष्ठायाः परावृत्ती विभुनं लभ्यते परम् ।
प्रप्रतिष्ठितनिर्वाणं बुद्धानामचले पदे ॥४५॥
मेथनस्य परावृत्ती विभुनं लभ्यते परम् ।
वृद्धसौद्धाविद्यारिऽय दाराऽसंक्षे यद्येने ॥४६॥

Prof. S. Lévi while translating the word as "révolution" suggested that "parāvṛtti of sexual act" alludes without doubt to "the mystic couples of Buddhas and Bodhisattvas which have so much importance in Tantrism" Translation of the Sūtrālamkāra, p. 81, note). If this interpretation is accepted then we have to admit that Tantrik ideas were already prevalent in Mahāyāna Buddhism in the time of Asanga (4th-5th centuries A.D.).

Dr. Winternitz in his Notes on the Guhya-Samāja Tantra and the Age of Tantras (I. H. Q. IX. 1) has recently questioned the interpretation of Prof. Lévi and translated the word parāvṛtti as "turning aside, discard." The last two verses of the series (Nos. 45 and 46) have been rendered by him as follows:

"In the turning-aside of the basis of Reality supreme greatness is obtained, (namely) the 'Nirvāṇa without basis' in the immovable seat of the Buddhas.

"In the turning-aside of sexual union supreme greatness is obtained, (namely) in the enjoyment (or pleasure-ground) of Buddha-happiness and in looking without impure thoughts at a wife."

The meaning of the term parāvṛtti however does not appear to be so plain. The verses of the Sātrālamkāra, already quoted, are introduced by Asanga with the note: manovṛtti-bhedena vibhutva-bhedam darŝayati—"different kinds of supreme greatness are being explained with reference to the various functions (vṛtti) of the mind." The word vṛtti has the implication of a forward circular motion whereas āvṛtti means a complete revolution (like the revolution of a wheel); the prefix parā means "back, in an inverted order." The word parāvṛtti therefore literally means—"turning (the functions of the mind) round to an opposite point." So it does not mean even literally, as Dr. Winternitz thinks, 'turning aside' those functions but their transformation for a higher purpose. This really amounts to a mental revolution. A large number of passages from different texts confirms this interpretation.

The word, first of all, occurs several times in the Vijnaptimātratāsiddhi (Trimsikā) of Vasubandhu and also in its commentary by Sthiramati:

यदा लालम्बनं ज्ञानं नेवीपलभते तदा। स्थितं विज्ञाननायले यास्त्राभावं तदयहात्॥ यविचोऽनुपलभोऽसी ज्ञानं लोकोत्तरं च तत्। यात्रयस्य परावृत्तिर्देधा दौष्ठुल्यहानितः॥

[Trimsikā, kār., 28-29.]

When the knowledge does no more perceive the object it makes its stay in vijuāna only (vijuāna-mātra). There is [then] no more receiving for the absence of objects to be received (28).

This knowledge is mindless, perception-less and supra-mundane. There is then the parāvṛtti of the recipient—āśrayasya parāvṛtti through elimination of two kinds of troubles (29).

Sthiramati while commenting on the verse says:

What is āśrayaparāvṛtti? Āśraya or the recipient is the ālaya-vijāāna which contains all the germs. That which is its parāvṛtti is produced when there is no more impregnation either of troubles or of duality and on account of their stoppage there is pliability. This parāvṛtti is attained



through the elimination of two kinds of troubles-klesavarana and jaeyavarana.

भाष्यस्य परावितिरिति। भाष्ययोऽत सब्बैबीजकमालयविज्ञानम्। तस्य परावितिर् या दीवृत्य-विपाकदयवासनाभाविन निवत्ती सत्यां कमैत्यता धर्मकायादयज्ञानभावेन परावितः। सा प्रनरायय-परावितः कस्य प्रहाणात् प्राप्यते। भत भाह। विधा दीवृत्यद्वानितः विवेति क्रेशावर वदीवृत्यं ज्ञेयावरण-दीवृत्यम्॥

Parāvītti in this case, implies prašrabdhi, i.e., relaxation or lightness of the mind. It is one of the bodhyangas or an integral condition of the bodhi. Sthiramati explains this word thus: "prašrabdhi is the opposite of dausthulya. It is the pliability of the body and mind while dausthulya is the want of this pliability and is hence the germ of all passion. The pliability of the body is that which enables the body to do its proper functions with ease. The pliability of the mind is that which enables the mind to act on its object with freshness and lightness. As to the body its prašrabdhi is attained when a particular tangible is brought to it through satisfaction. So says the Sūtra: "when the mind is pleased the body relaxes ( व्यक्ते). Its proper function is to extirpate radically the obstruction of passion (klešāvaraņa) so that through it the parāvītti of the recipient (āšraya) takes place."

The word paravrtti occurs in many places of the Lankavatara-sutra but the most important references to it occur in the last (समायकम्) of the text. The Bodhisattvas are first of all described as experts in paravṛtti or पराविश्वण्यला: (p. 10), and it is further said that they attain the body of Tathagata (Tathagata-kaya) through paravrtti (p. 43). Tathata or the state of ultimate reality is defined as that which is attained through paravrtti of the nature of desires, mental disturbances (dausthulya), mind and mental and non-mental knowledge (p. 108)—षायांचा वित्तसनीविज्ञान-दौष्ठुल्यवासनास्त्रभावधकंपरापृत्ति (sic. इति) भावात् धान्ति (?) रायांचां तथनेल्याते. Tathatā is once equated with paravrtta (परावसत् तथता, p. 274, verse 77 and also p. 151, पराहता हि तथता -). Parāvṛtti of the vijāāna, the seat of all desires -and knowledge, is called nirvāņa (p. 93)— प्रदेविज्ञान व भाववासनालयमनीमनीविज्ञान-हिट्यासनापरावित्तिर्विवायिमित्युच्यते. When the mind is paravella no function of the senses remains to the Yogin (p. 33!) and when the paravitti of the recipient! (āśraya) takes place there is no origination (p. 338). Parāvṛtti is the state of detachment in which there is no knowledge of contradiction (p. 345-अप्रवृत्तिविकत्यस्य परावृत्तिनिराययः ).

<sup>1</sup> A śraya, we have seen, is explained by Sthiramati as स्टेंबोनकमालयविज्ञानम् ।

There are several other passages in the Lankāvatāra which help us in determining the sense of the word with great precision. It is said that when the Bodhisattvas arrive at the 8th bhūmi they attain the manomaya-kāya through the parāvṛtti of the two ways; on page 266 (verses 17-20) it is further said that when the mind is parāvṛtta it always stays in the space which has the colour of a lotus, and which is beyond the reach of the illusory world. When the mind is established there, the thoughts attain the state of anābhogacari. The mind then performs the acts of the common beings like the diamond in which the whole world is reflected (i.e., the mind remains unstained like the diamond inspite of the reflections). In that state there is no phenomenon either samskṛta or asamskṛta, and there is no knowledge of duality. The individuality loses its nature (naihsvābhāvyam).

From this it is evident that parāvṛtti is an affair of the 8th of the ten bhūmis. It is a state in which the mind stays permanently (বিত্তবি আন্তর্ন) and attains anābhogacari condition (অনুদৌশন্তি শব:). In fact the 8th bhūmi is called Anābhoga or Acatā. The relative position of the ten bhūmis is indicated in the following verses of the Lankāvatāra (pp. 278, 106, cf. also p. 215).

# वित्तं हि भूमय: सप्त निराशासा च षष्टमी। दी भूमयी विहाराय श्रीवभूमिमैमात्मिका॥

"The citta consists of the first 7  $bh\bar{u}mis$ , the 8th is devoid of illusion, and the two  $bh\bar{u}mis$  (9th and 10th) are places of enjoyment (—vih $\bar{u}$ ra). The last is a positive state."

1. Cf. also vyāvṛtti. In the Lankāvatāra, p. 315, verses 392ff.; also p. 325, verse 483ff.—
Vyāvṛttiḥ sarvadṛṭṭinām. Vyāvṛtti is used in the Sutrālamkāra as a synonym of
Parāvṛtti in verse 47 (ix)—ākāśasamijāavyāvṛttan. In the Chinese translation of the Sutrāparāvṛtti is rendered by chuan which means 'revolution or turning round'; chuan is
particularly used to mean the revolution or turning of the wheel. Nivṛtti means suppression
or destruction and hence has only a negative character whereas parāvṛtti or vyāvṛtti has a
positive character; paravṛtti implies exteriorisation and parāvṛtti seems to imply the opposite
process. Compare with this the significance of param in param vairāgyam (Yogasūtra I,
16) and parārtham (ibid, IV. 23). In both the cases param appertains to Puruṣa. The
Prakṛti has two movements, outward and inward, and when its inward movement reaches
completion mokṣa is attained. Bhojadeva in his comment on Yogasūtra IV. 22 says:—

भनुकोमप्रतिक्षीमक्षचयपरियामदये सङ्जं यक्तिदयमक्तु...विश्वेखतयाऽनुक्षोमः परियामः । पुनस्कारयानुप्रवेगदारियाधितानः परियामः प्रतिक्षोमः ॥ This, I think, throws a flood of light on the meaning of the verses 45, 46, 47 and 48 of the Sūtrālamkāra already referred to. Buddhānām acale pade of verse 45, Buddhasāukhya-vihāra of verse 46 and ākāšasamjñā vyāvṛtti (which makes one gagana-garbha according to Asanga) of the verse 47 refer to the last three stages in the march towards final beatitude. Acale pade seems to refer to the 8th bhūmi called Acalā or Nirābhogā whereas the 9th and the 10th which are generally called vihāra in the Lankāvatāra are implied in the other two expressions. The 9th bhūmi called Sādhumatī is the place from which the Bodhisattva exercises mahākarnnā for all beings and this is probably the reason why it has been called a stage from which the friendship or love of Buddha is exercised (—Buddha saukhyavihāra). The 10th bhūmi called dharmamegha in which the Boddhisattva attains acintyam ca nāma mokṣam being seated in the pure dharmamegha appear to be implied in ākāšasamj nāvyāvṛtti and acintyakṛtyānuṣṭhānād-buddhārāmamalāśraya.

I do not mean that such well defined stages of spiritual progress as are found in the  $Da\hat{s}abh\bar{u}mika$   $S\bar{u}tra$  are implied in the above three verses of the  $S\bar{u}tr\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$ . But the three stages in some form or other were known to Asanga (cf.  $S\bar{u}tr\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$ , XX-XXI, 37-38) and called by him  $Acal\bar{a}$ ,  $S\bar{a}dhumat\bar{\imath}$  and  $Dharmamegh\bar{a}$ , although the characteristics of these three are there mixed up together. This seems to be due to the fact that the last three  $bh\bar{u}mis$  by their peculiar elevation form a category different from the first seven  $bh\bar{u}mis$  as it is distinctly said that from the 8th  $bh\bar{u}mi$  one becomes a member of the Buddha family, possesses the Buddha gotra and is constantly attended by all gods and Vajrapāṇi. It seems that there was no fall from any of the last three  $bh\bar{u}mis$  where as that was possible from any of the first seven  $bh\bar{u}mis$ .

Now paravṛtti is spoken of in connection with the last three bhāmis—stages in which Buddhahood has been already attained. In these stages no question of discarding different functions of the senses, mind, vikalpa and sexual act (maithuna), etc., arises because that is the affair of earlier stages in the spiritual march. In the last the stages the Bodhisattva is far above the world and its turmoils. Therefore parāvṛtti must have a different significance.

In the previous discussions we have seen that parāvṛtti involves praśrabdhi or elimination of the two categories of obstruction both of the passions and objects of senses, and is equated with nirvāṇa and tathatā. It is nihsvabhāvatā, nirābhāsatvam, anutpāda, etc. It is not therefore complete negation as nirvāṇa and tathatā do not consist in

annihilation, it has neither any positive nor negative aspect—it is above that (Lankā., p. 98, शायती केंद्रविकस्थभावविविज्ञ तम् ).

So it has been defined as a state of blissfulness. Therefore I think paravrtti of maithuna (verse 46) does not mean 'turning aside' or 'abnegation of the sexual act' but enjoyment of bliss similar to that arising from that act. This analogy has been used in Indian philosophical texts beginning with the Upanisads.

The significance of this mystic union and the consequent enjoyment of a blissful union is given in the Sūtrālamkāra itself (XX-XXI, verses, 37 and 38) in connection with the two bhamis, Acala (the 8th) and the Dharmameghā (the 10th). The 8th bhami is called Acalā, "un-moved" because it is "unmoved by the connotation of the two" (इय संज्ञानिवजनात्). The last bhumi is called Dharmamegha because it is " filled up by the two as the space is filled up by the clouds" (इयवाम धेमांकामस्य मेघवत). The connotation of the two are explained by Asanga as nimittasamijna and animittasamijna and "the filling up by the two" as the filling up by the samadhimukha and the dharanimukha. In these stages therefore "the coming together" or "unity of two categories" is implied and this union might have been described as maithunasya parāvṛtti. Such union is implied in the terms Yoga, and Samādhi. The nimitta-samjāā and animitta-samjāā of Asanga may be compared with the karyacitta and karanacitta of the Yoga philosophy. The kāranacitta is vibhu and the most important aim of the Yogin is to turn back the citta to its original state of all-pervading kāranacitta.

Additional Note.—My note was published in October, 1933. Mr. A. K. Coomaraswamy discussed the word independently at about the same time. Cf. his "A New Approach to the Vedas," p. 93, note 73, where he explains parāvṛtti as transformation, regeneration, analogy, reversal, etc. Cf. also his article in Festschrift Ernst Winternitz.

self-recht vielle reit in und einergebereite gere der elliesel ter forzes find son er flest aus eines aus einflucht ich denner fandishe selt ist sepate sone korp Zon, endomo. De gelfenne en ben bliebe edt greefe selt et

anythered therefore a to a me a could be an elected abolives out at

to about an one of the colored or to deal to enther the sold tenture. Then explored the sold tenture of the colored of the col

because the state throught the a great

## Appendix

## DETAILED NOTICES ON MANUSCRIPTS

#### I. Niśvāsa-tattva-Samhitā.

I have drawn attention to the importance of this MS. previously (supra, pp. 3ff.). It is a palm leaf MS. preserved in the Darbar Library and was first briefly noticed by H. P. Shastri (Darbar Library Catalogue, p. 137). The MS. consists of 114 leaves and its writing is late Gupta of the 8th century. The importance of the text lies in the fact that it mentions a large number of Tantrik texts which existed at the time of its compilation.

The text consists of five sūtras and though they form a complete whole, each of them may be taken independently of others. The five sūtras are—(i) Laukika-dharma; (ii) Mūla-sūtra; (iii) Uttara-sūtra; (iv) Naya-sūtra; (v) Guhya-sūtra. The last is more extensive than the four others taken together. According to a verse occurring on fol. 226 the section of Laukika-dharma is left out and the next four sections are said to form the main body of the text (cf. supra, p. 4).

On fol. 416 there is a definition of sutra-

म्चना स्वमित्वाह स्वं नाम पटं परं। तेन सर्वं इटं व्याप्तं स्वे मणिगणा इन॥

On fol. 41b it is said that the text is called a samhitā because five texts have been put together. They represent five currents of literary traditions communicated by the mouth and hence they are called Niśvāsa (probably because vital wind passes through the mouth)—

म्लखोत्तरस्पच नयस्पमेव च।
गृद्धम्तचतुर्यन्त प्रोष्यमानं निवीध मे ॥
तेनेव सइसंयुक्ता संहितेका प्रपत्यते।
निवासिति नामेन सम्पूर्णान्त ततो भवेत्॥
निवाससंहिता होषा सुखेन सइसंयुक्ता।
पञ्चलीतान्त ये प्रोक्ता सुखेन परिकीत्तिताः॥

In the first section (mulasutra)—the Devi says that she has learnt the doctrines of the Vedanta and the 25 Samkhyas (वेदानं विदितन्ते वं सांख्य रे

प्याधित ) and now desires to learn the Sivatattva. The first chapter deals with the initiation and the initiated (दोचा and दोचित); the second chapter with sacrifice (परिकार्यम्) and the mode of worshipping Siva (विवासनिविधः); the third chapter with मुक्तिमञ्जन; the fourth with मुक्तिदोचा and the fifth with the nature of the mantras. The subject-matter of the last three chapters is not well arranged.

In the second section (uttara-sūtra) there are five chapters, the first two dealing with चिवालयस्थापन, माहका and सीम; the third and the fourth with समिषक and दीसा and the fifth with जानवीग.

A number of holy places and rivers is mentioned on fol. 96 and 42:

[96a] दानध्यं स्वया स्वातसी यंध्यं स वद। साने पुर्व्यक्लं यसात्.....भविष्यति ॥ रेशर उवाच-गङ्गा सरस्तती पुष्णा यसुना गोमती तथा। चिमं चन्द्रभागा च सरयुगेछको तथा॥ जा...का च शतद्र च कालिका सुप्रभा तथा। विद्वती च विपामा च नर्खंडा चन्द्र...प...॥ गीटावरी महावर्षा सर्वरावर्ष मञ्चारी। कावेरी की शिकी चैव वतीया च महानदी ॥ विटङ प्रतिकृला च सीमानन्दा च विश्वता। करतीया वेतवती रेखका वेखका च या॥ षावेयगङ्गा वैतर्यो कथारी ब्राइनी तथा। प्रावनी च सवर्षां सा कवाषासंसिनी... ॥ विशिष्ठा च...पारा च सिन्ध वेत्यादयी तथा। तासा चेवं विस्था च मन्दाकिनाः परास्त ताः॥ तैलकोशो च पारा च दुन्दुभि नलिनी तथा। नीलगङ्गा च गोधा च पूर्वाचन्द्रा ग्रशिशमा ॥ उपवासरतका सख्याया .....।

The names of sacred rivers are :—Gangā, Sarasvati, Yamunā, Gomati, Carmi, Candrabhāgā, Sarayū, Ganḍaki, ? , Śatadru, Kālikā, Suprabhā, Vitasti, Vipāsā, Narmadā, ? , Godāvarī, Śarkarāvarta, Majvārī (?), Kāverī, Kauśikī, Viṭanka, Somānandā, Karatoyā, Vetravati, Renukā, Venukā, Ātreya-Gangā, Vaitarani, Karmāri, Hlādani, Plāvani, Savarņā, Kalmāṣā?, Vasiṣṭhā, Sindhu, Ārunī, Tāmrā, Trisandhyā, Mandākinī, Tailakośī, Pārā, Dundubhi, Nalini, Nilagangā, Godhā, Purņācandrā.

#### APPENDIX

In the same chapter five kinds of lingas are spoken of—लोइ' मचिमय बाइपि सन्त्रयं बेलजा [रीप्यं ?]

[42a] सिडिचेवाणि बच्चामि यत्र सिडि: प्रतिष्ठिता।
त्रीरेलच महेन्द्रच पारियाव......॥
मलय सद्य.......गोमती।
नर्मदा चन्द्रभागा च विपासा चर्मिला गया॥
गङ्गादारं प्रयागच गङ्गासागरसङ्गम्।
पुष्तरं करवोरच घट्टासाविमुक्तकम्॥
सीमेत्ररं महाकालं नैमिषामरकव्दकं।
कालचरन्तयेकासं गृष्णाद्याय...नि च॥
पुष्णा नद्यानि सर्व्यानि.....।
सिडिचेवाणि पुष्णाणि यव देव: सर्व्य स्थित:॥

The holy places are—Śrīśaila, Mahendra, Pāriyātra, Malaya, Sahya, Gomatī, Narmadā, Candrabhāgā, Vipāsā, Carmmilā, Gayā, Gaṅgādvāra, Prayāga, Gaṅgāsāgara, Puṣkara, Karavīra, Aṭṭahāsa, Avimuktaka, Someśvara, Mahākāla, Naimiṣā, Amarakaṇṭaka, Kālañjara and Ekāmra.

On fol. 24a-24b there is a description of the Sivatantras, which we

have partly utilised (ante, pp. 4-5) :-

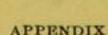
शिवतन्त्रस्य चीत्पत्तिं कीर्च्यमानं निवीध मे। अहरुवियहे भाने भिने परमकारये॥ नामरूपं विनिष्कानं शास्त्रं परमदुवं भम्। सदाशिवस्त वेत्ता वे स च साम्प्रतिविधकः॥ नाददपस्य ग्रास्तस्य चहं [तन्त]निवस्थकः। अनुष्टद्कन्दवन्धेन देवेभ्यः प्रतिपादितम् ॥ क्षविभिय पुरुवाइ' तिथी मर्ख्यु सन्तति:। कामिकं योगदं दिव्यं कार्यमजितन्या॥ दीतं मूचं च साइसं चलमांग्रभीदि च। चननं विवयास्त्रन् दयधा परिकोत्तितम् ॥ पुनयाद्यादेशभदं बद्रेष परिकीत्तितम्। विजयं प्रथमं की वां का निवासं तदनकरम्॥ स्वायभ्वमतयेव वाद्वं तदननरम्। वीरभद्रमिति ख्यातं रीरवं माकुटसया ॥ विरसं चन्द्रहास्य जान्य मुखविम्बकम्। प्रोहीतं ललितचैव सिद्धसन्तानभेव च ॥

सर्वोद्गीतं च विश्वयं किरणं पारमेश्वरम्। पारमेश्वरतनोऽयं ऋषिदेवेषु कीर्त्तितम् ॥ चटाविंगति तनाचि प्रसिद्धानि सहस्रम्:। यो...परतरी भेदी शिवतन प पद्मते ॥ संग्रह: स त विज्ञीयो स्विदिवगणां गिरा:। येन येन ऋतं तन्तं येन येनावधारितम्॥ तस्य तस्य हि नामेन तत् तन्तं परिगीयते। शिवं सदाशिवचेव विदोशाय उमा-[पति] ?॥ ...गणमुख्यो विजयो कालिरेव च। ब्रह्मा विश्वस्था वित्रवायुः स्ट्यंचन्द्रमाः ॥ धर्मेन्दी वहवयेव यचरचमहोरगाः। माविभग्राकेयैव गर्डन च धीमता॥ कोटिययाप्यधीतानि लचायुत्रमतानि च। ग्रुक्रयेव दधीषिय द्वी.....॥ ..... खसनन्दनः। ...वंद्रिरात्य श्रेतीरामय वाद्रिकः। मरीविरोपमनाय मार्कछोऽगसिकाम्बपः। तत्त्वय पारमा होते भतभोऽय सहस्रभ: ॥

#### II. Sammoha Tantra.

It is preserved in a late Newari MS. preserved in the Darbar Library; it consists of 67 pages, divided into 10 patalas. Cf. Shastri, Darbar Library Catalogue II, p. 183; the compiler of the catalogue has mentioned the name of the work as Sammohana-Tantra; both Sammohana and Sammohana occur as the title of the text. The text is interesting particularly because it enumerates various traditions of Tantrik culture. Besides in the 5th chapter, called Akşobhyn-tārā-samnāda, there is a curious story about the origin of Nilasarasvati.

In the first chapter (patala I) it is said that there are nine traditions of mantras according to the Kalikāmata;—these are Samkarṣaṇī, Siddhakālī, Kubjikā, Sundarī, Mahākhila-devesī, Śrīmat-siddhakarālikā, Pratyangirā, Śeṣikā and Śeṣamantra. Hence Guhyakālī has nine faces. The Śāmbhavas (i.e., those who practise the śāmbhavī-vidyā) are of twenty kinds according to the division of holy places, literary traditions, and script and language used.



[5b] सद्धेणो सिडकालो कुलिका सुन्दरी तथा।
श्रीमहाखिलदेवेशो श्रीमत्सिडकरालिका।
प्रविद्धा श्रीषका च श्रीयमन्त्रोऽपि पावैति॥
नवासायादिमन्त्राय विश्रेया कालिकामतो।
नववक्ष' महिशानि गुद्धाकाल्यां महिश्रदि॥...
भ्रदेतभावसम्पन्ना श्रीमहा गुद्धकालिका।
पीठवाणोप्रमिदेन शाक्षवानां च विश्रित।
लिपिभाषापभेदीन शाक्षवानां च विश्रित॥

In the third chapter various kinds of pīthas are enumerated, viz., Vidyāpītha, Śakti-pītha, Śaiva-pītha, Ganeśa-pītha, Cāndra°, Svāyambhuva°, Cīna°, Bauddha° and Vaidika. The word pītha in this case as well as in the following cases is used to mean "ways of Tantrik practice." Other kinds of pīthas are:—

[6b] जयाप्रये जयापीठं ताराविद्याविधी स्मृतम्।
काल्याः पौठवयं देवि गुद्धकाल्यां नियाकरः॥
सन्दर्यां दे विधा पौठं तारायां दिविधं भवेत्।
किन्नायामेकदपं तु भुवनायामपि विये॥
धूसायामपि तथा मातद्व्यां दिविधं भवेत्।
सिन्नविद्याविधी देवि दिविधं भैरवीमती॥
सन्दरो पोठमाल्यातं धूसायमिकमेत्र च।
कमलायां दयं पीठं शैवे विविधमेव च॥
चतुर्व्विधं वैष्णवे स्थात् सीरे दिविधम् दूरितम्।
गाणपे पद्यधा पोठमत्योऽपि पौठविक्तरम्॥
शैवपौठं च वट्ने स्वर्णेश भैरवे।
वड्नानले वौरभित्रं चानामादि [१] कोर्णितम्॥
स्वायभुवे द्विगुलाजे पौठं शक्तिमयं मतम्।

[7a] कादी पट्पचाग्रद देशाय हादाविष तथा थिये।
तहेश्यक्तिसंयोगसदा त्यमिति कौर्तितम् ॥
तत्संगमनपेनैव तहेशराज्यमाक्रयात्।
तवादी कादिदेशच कष्यते परमेश्वरि ॥
चक्रवत्री किलक्रय कालिक्रकेरलस्था।
कारसीरकामक्ष्य महाराष्ट्रीऽय ए॥ च ॥
सीराष्ट्री द्राविक्रयेव' तेलिक्रमलयादकी।
कर्णाटावन्यवेदभं-सर्पाभीर-समालवा॥

#### STUDIES IN THE TANTRAS

चीलयां चालकां वीज हैराद्रपाध्यां (१) विदेशभू। वाझीकय किरातय कैकटावन्यकी तथा॥ वेराकभीटानाचीनमहाचीनलधैव च। नेपाल-गोलहर्य गीडकोशलमागधा ॥ त्रोत्कला कुन्तला इयाः कोङ्गवः कैकयस्त्रथा। युरसेन: कौरवाय सिंहलाय पुलिन्दका ॥ कक्कसेवनमदाय सीवीरलाटवर्लरा ॥ मतस्या सैश्वव इत्येत षद्यश्वाश प्रकोशिता ॥ कादिदेशाः समाव्याता हादिदेशाः यस प्रिये। चढ वड कलिड्य कालिङ स्थात सवीरक ॥ काञ्मीरयेव काम्बोजा सौराष्ट्री मगधसाया। महाराष्ट्री माजवस्त नेपाल: केरलस्था ॥ चोलयां चालगौडाय मलयांडय सिंहल। ब्योहिवडी ब्योन्तयैव कार्याटी लाट एव च ॥ मलाटयैव पानाटाः पावाद्यात्मक पलिन्टका । हणकौरवगाश्चारविद्रभां: सविदेहका ॥ बाहीक बर्खरी देवि केकयः कोशलीऽपि च। कनालय किलातय ग्रसेनय सेवर ॥ वनाट: टङ्गायेव कोङ्गा मन्समद्रशी। मेड सेश्व स्था: पार्वकीकी ततः स्ती॥ योजांल यवनी देवि जलजालसमालला। सिन्ध्य वंदादिशाय हादि पर्यायबाधका ॥

The countries in which the Kādi mode of practice was prevalent are therefore—Aṅga, Vaṅga, Kaliṅga, Kāliṅga (probably meaning outer Kaliṅga'), Kerala, Kāśmīra, Kāmarūpa, Mahārāṣṭra, Saurāṣṭra, Drāviḍa, Tailiṅga, Malayādri, Karṇāṭa, Avanti, Vaidarbha, Sarpa (?), Ābhīra, Mālava, Caula (?), Cāla (? Cola), Kāṁboja, Vairādra (? Vairāṭ), ?, Videha (?), Bālhīka, Kirāta, Kaikaṭa, Āvantaka, Airāka, Bhoṭa, Cīna, Mahācīna, Nepāla, Śtlahaṭṭa, Gauḍa, Kośala, Māgadha, Snotkola (? Utkala), Kuntala, Huṇa, Koṅkaṇa, Kekaya, Śūrasena, Kaurava, Siṁhala, Pulinda, Kaccha, Sevana (?), Madra, Lāṭa, Varvara, Matsya and Saindhava. There are however 53 names in this list (of which one could not be read) instead of 56 as spoken of.

The countries in which the Hādi mode of practice was prevalent are the following—Anga, Vanga, Kalinga, Kalinga, Suviraka, Kasmira,

Kāmboja, Saurāṣṭra, Magadha, Mahārāṣṭra. Mālava, Nepāla, Kerala, Cola, Cāla ??), Gauḍa, Malaya, Aṇḍa (?), Simhala, Vyonka, Vida, Vyoṇḍa, Kārṇāṭa, Lāṭa, Malāṭa, Pānāṭa, Pāvā (?), Andh(r)aka, Pulinda, Huṇa, Kaurava, Gāndhāra, Vidarbha, Videha, Bālhtka, Varvara, Kekaya, Košala, Kuntala, Kilāta, Śūrasena, Severa (? Sauvīra), Vanāṭa, Taṅkaṇa, Koṅkaṇa, Matsya, Madra, Maida, Saindhava, Pārśvakīka, Dyorjāla, Yavana, Jala (?), Jālaudha(ra), Sālva and Sindhu. There are 56 names in this list but some of them cannot be identified. Besides many of the names are common to both the lists.

In the 5th chapter (paṭala) there is an enumeration of various Tantrik sects, their distribution and the account of Tantrik literature prevalent in various countries (fols. 27a-28b). The Tantrik traditions, generally speaking are twofold— $K\bar{a}di$  and  $H\bar{a}di$ , each of which has again nine divisions:—

## कादिहादिश्मेदेन दिधा चामायमंहति:। हाटौ नव-विधलं च कादौ नवविधलकम्॥

These nine divisions of each of the āmnāyas are not however mentioned. The Tantrik tradition is again said to be fourfold according to the geographical order—East, West, South and North. The four principal sects according to this division are—Kerala, Kāšnīra, Gauda and Vilāsa. The Kerala sect is prevalent in all countries from Anga to Mālava, the Kāšmīra in countries from Madra to Nepāla, the Gauda in countries from Silahaṭṭa to Saindhava and the Vilāsa sect is prevalent in all countries...

Another general classification into three is also mentioned—Divya, Kaula and Vāma. Each of these sects is again divided into two—hārda (inner) and bāhya (outer)—

करलयेव काम्मीरी गौडयेव हतीयक: ।
विलासाख्ययतुर्थः स्थात् तत्कमं ग्रस् पार्श्वति ॥
भन्नादि सालवालं च करलः परिकोत्तितः ।
सद्देशं समारभ्य नेपालानं महित्ररि ॥
काम्मीराख्यः समादायः कथितः परमेवरि ।
गिलहरं समारभ्य सेन्यान्तं महित्ररि ॥
गौडमार्गं महिशानि कीर्त्तित्ते सथा तव ।
विलासाख्यः सम्प्रदायः सर्वगः परिकीर्त्तितः ॥...

The number of Tantras current in various countries is enumerated as follows-In Cīna-100 principal tantras and 7 subsidiary ones; in Drāvīda -20 principal ones and 25 subsidiary ones; amongst the Jainas-18 principal ones and 20 subsidiary ones; in Kerala-60 principal works and 500 subsidiary ones; in Kāśmīra-100 principal works and 10 subsidiary ones and in Gauda-27 principal works and 16 (? kalā) subsidiary ones.

The amnayas are also said to be sixfold-Eastern, Southern, Western, Northern, upper and lower (pātāla): in the Western class-Aghora, Sākint, Vaisnava philosophy, the Bhairavas following Rudra, the Bhairavi called Caitanya and the Sadyojāta (?); in the Northern class-Gānapa philosophy, Kuvera-Bhairava, Vāmadeva-maheśvara, Mahogrāvidya; in the Southern class-Tripura, Saura, Ganapa, Vaisnava.

In the 5th chapter the story of the origin of Nilasarasvati is narrated, we have already referred to it in course of a previous study (ante, p. 43).

In the sixth chapter there is a detailed enumeration of the literature various sects (fol. 33b). The Saiva-Tantras are-32 Tantra, 325 Upatantra, 10 Samhitā, 1+4 (-5?) Arņava, 2 Yāmala, 3 Dāmara, 1 Uddála, 2 Uddíša, 8 Kalpa, 8 Upasamkhyā (?), 2 Cūdāmaņi, 2 Vimarsinī, 5 Avatāraņaka (belonging to the Buddhists), 5 Sūkta, 2 Cintāmaņi, 9 Purana, 3 Upasajna, 2 Kaksaputi, 3 Kalpadruma, 2 Kamadhenu, 3 Sabhāva, and 5 Tattva.

Vaisnava-Tantras -75 Tantra, 205 Upatantra, 20 Kalpa, 8 Samhita, 1 Arņavaka, 5 Kakṣapūṭa, 8 Cūḍāmaṇi, 2 Cintāmaṇi, 2 Uḍḍīśa, 2 Dāmara, 1 Yāmala, 5 Purāņa, 3 Tattvabodha-vimarsinī, 2 Amrtatarpana (?).

The Saura-Tantra-30 Tantra, 96 Tattva (?), 4 Samhitā, 2 Upasamhitā, 5 Purāņa, 10 Kalpa, 2 Kakṣapuṭī, 3 Tattva, 3 Vimarṣiṇī, 5 Cūdāmaṇi,

2 Dāmara, 2 Yāmala, 5 Uddāla, 2 Avatāra, 2 Uddīša, 3 Amrta, 3 Darpaņa, 3 Kalpa.

The Ganapatya-Tantra-50 Tantra, 25 Upatantra, 2 Purapa, 2 Amrta, 3 Sāgara, 3 Darpaņa, 5 Amṛta, 9 Kalpakā, 3 Kakṣapuṭī, 2 Vimarṣiṇī,

2 Tattva, 2 Uddtša, 3 Cūdāmaņi, 3 Cintāmaņi, 1 Dāmara, Candra-yāmala,

8 Pañcarātra. V

In the 7th chapter there is a sixfold classification of the Tantrik Sādhana (fols. 38a-40b) from various points of view-

Vatuka-mata-According to it the Vidyas in the six amnayas are enumerated as-(i) Pūrva-Gāyatrī, Aindrī, Brahmavidyā, Gandharva, Mahaganapati, Ardhanarisvari, Mrtyunjaya, Srutidbari, Matrka, Sarasvati, Canda-yogeśvari, Śambhavi, Śriparāparā, Kāmarāješvari, Tripura-bhairavi, Caitanya-bhairavī, Rudra-śakti, Kāmeśvarī, Mahā-tripura-bhairavī, Aghorabhairavī, Tripura-Nikṛnta-bhairavī, Annapūrņā, Kukkuṭā, Śivā, Bhogavatī; (ii) Paścima—Kubjikā, Saṁkarṣiṇī, Kriyā-saṁkarṣiṇī, Kāla-saṁkarṣiṇī, Mahāvidyā, Śūlinī, Mādhavī; (iii) Uttara—Caṇḍa-yogeśvarī, Cāmuṇḍā, Ratnavidyā, Siddha-vidyā; (iv) Dakṣiṇa—Māyā, Māyāvatī, Ramā, Dhanadā, Śavarī, Durgā, Reṇukā; (v) Ūrddhva—Sāmrājya-sundarī, Rājarājeśvarī, Mahā-sāmrājya-vidyā; (vi) Pātāla—Yakṣiṇī, Kinnarī, Siddhi, Pūtanā, Kavacā, Kuṣmāṇḍinī.

II. Mahāmūrti-mata—(i) Pūrva—Lopā, Agastya, Manu, Manu II, Agastya-vidyā II, Candra, the ruler of the Northern direction, Agastya-vidyā III, the lord of Nandī, Sūrya, Viṣṇu, Durvāsā; (ii) Dakṣiṇa—Vāgvādinī, Cāṇḍālī, Susukhi, Mātaṅginī, Māheśvarī; (iii) Paścima—Rāja-mātaṅginī, Laghu-vārāhī, Śūtiraskāriṇī, Svapna-vārāhī, Pādukā, Vārāhī-pādukā, Jambu-kīkkikā, Śukā, Vāgešī, Śukatuṇļā, Mohinī, Kīrādinē, Kṣemuṅkarī; (iv) Uttara—Śūmūrti, Pādukā, Vārtāli (?) Pādukā, Śrī-mahātimirāvatī, Kālamāyā, Cāmuṇḍā; (v) Ūrddhva—Ṣoḍaśī, Śrī-parā-vidyā, Caraṇa-rūpiṇī, Six sāmbhava-(vidyā); (vi) Pātāla—?

III. Āmnāya-division—(i) Pūrva—64 tantras, 670 (?) upatantras; (ii) Dakṣiṇa—400 tantras, 375 upatantras; (iii) Paścima—? tantras, 96 upatantras; (iv) Ūttara—25 tantras, 364 upatantras; (v) Ūrddhra—64 tantras, 85 upatantras; (vi) Pātāla—105 tantras, 700 upatantras.

IV. Dīkṣāmnāya—(i) Pūrva—Vidyā called Lamayā অল্যান্ত), Śrīvidyā, Bāla-tripurā, Annapūrņā, 10 tantras, 5 upatantras; (ii) Paścima—Vagalā, Mahiṣaghnā, Mahālakṣmī with 8 tantras and 9 upatantras issuing from the mouth of Dakṣa, Mahāsarasvati, Vāgvādinī, Pratyamgīrā, Bhavānī; (iii) Uttara—20 tantras, and 8 upatantras, Kālikā, Tārā, Mātanginī, Bhairavī, Chinnamastā, Dhūmāvati [100 tantras, 9 upatantras]; (iv) Dakṣina—20 tantras, 3 upatantras, Parā-vidyā of 22 kinds; (v) Pātāla—Nāgašakti, 9 tantras, 2 upatantras; The ūrddhvāmnāya has been dropped through some mistake of the copyist; probably the portion within brackets refers to that āmnāya.

V. Darŝana-paryāya—(i) Pūrva—Śākta with 100 tantras and 8 upatantras; (ii) Dakṣiṇa—Śaiva with 50 tantras and 5 upatantras; (iii) Paŝcima—Vaiṣṇava with (tattva) tantras and upatantras of the same number; (iv) Uttara—Gāṇapa with 70 tantras and 3 upatantras; (v) Ūrddhva—Saura with 12 tantras and 10 upatantras and (vi) Pātāla—Bauddha with 100 tantras and 63 upatantras.

This division follows the Hādi-mata but according to the Kādi, Saiva is in the East, Vaisnava in the South, Gāṇapa in the West, Saura in the North, Sākta in the upper [and Bauddha in the nether] āmnāya.

#### III. Brahmayāmala

I have referred to this palm-leaf MS. more than once in the first two articles. It contains important materials for the history of the Tantrik literature and this is why I have thought it fit to deal at length with some chapters of the text which appeared to me to be interesting from that point of view. The MS. is dated 172 Nepal Samvat (=1052 A.D.)—the writing is old hooked Newari [cf. H. P. Sastri, Nepal Catalogue II. p. 60] but the text probably is a compilation of the 8th century A.D. (cf. ante, p. 7).

In the first patala of the work, called Akṣara vidhāna—the Iśvara relates the origin of the Tantras. He says that he worshipped the Lord Srīkantha devotedly for thousands of years and Srīkantha being thus propitiated communicated to him the great store of spiritual knowledge in a versified language:

ज्ञानीचनु समास्थातः पदवस्वजनेन (२) तु । श्रीकस्थय प्रसादेन सर्व्वोऽयं परिवाती सम ॥

The Isvara then tells his consort—"I gave you that knowledge out of kindness but you communicated it to your followers without my permission. You were therefore cursed by me for having thus abused the sacred knowledge. But when you implored and begged for pardon I ordered you to go and incarnate on earth and to come back to me after worshipping me. Thereafter you incarnated yourself in the house of the Brahmin Meghadatta in the village of Kaṇavīra near Prayāga. There you worshipped me for thirteen years and attained spiritual perfection by propitiating me in the form of a linga."

ततोऽवतीर्था महाको प्रधाग य समीपतः।
कथवीरे महायामे मेघदत्तरहे यमे॥
शिक्तका तव सम्भाता तव नाम न संश्वः।
तती महान्या भन्न्या बुविसन्पन्नया छदं॥
भाराधिती महादेवि सतत लिङ्गपून्या।
तव वयीद्ये वर्षे सिवास्यं शक्ति न यहा (१)॥
खेचरत्ममाप्रीय समानिकं।

The Isvara then narrates the secret knowledge as it was communicated by Srikantha. "The supreme energy (parāśakti) of the ultimate being, the Siva, assumed the form of desire (icchā). The bindu was energised by this desire and from it the pure spiritual knowledge emanated. Sadāśiva represents this knowledge in its plenitude and from him the creation

#### APPENDIX

started. This knowledge was communicated in 125 thousand anustup verses by Amrta to others and through generations to Srikantha. Srikantha communicated it to others in amplified versions in crores of ślokas, and I will communicate in my turn to you exactly the 125 thousand of verses which I received from him."

श्रीकर्छ न महान् प्रोत्रं भूला सदाशिवपदात्। स्रहसं महादेवि यगुणे कायमानसा ॥ अजिल्य य पराश्चितः शिवस्य परसातानः। इच्छानासेन सञ्चातः तया विन्दुप्रवीधितः ॥ प्रबुद्ध तती विन्दी शानीधं निष्फलं तत:। श्रभित्यको महादेवि श्रकसात् मन्ववियहः॥ ज्ञानसम्पूर्णदेहस् सदाशिवपदे स्थितः। तथात् सदाशिवा.....ततः सप्टेरभृत् पुनः ॥ .....तत्त्वमालां स्रभावतः। लोकस्य हितकाम्यया असताख्येन सवते ॥ निबन्धल समासेन जानीयं विमलात्मक: । धन्छ[प] क्न्दोवसेन सपादेन महाताना। लचसंख्येन .... मनाचान-क्रियात्मक: ॥ ... परापरेश देवेन त्रीकण्डाय प्रभावितं।... सपादनचमंत्यातं मया जानं यथार्थतः। तथापि जानद्रष्टायाः सम्प्रबच्चामि साम्प्रतं ॥

The Isvara then tells his consort about the various collections of tuese verses which would be communicated in different parts of the country: "The Bhairava communicated to Krodha-Bhairava 125 thousand ślokas. The Kapāla-Bhairava will make a collection of 21,000 verses and communicate it to a Brahmin of the Kurukṣetra.....Padmabhairava will communicate a collection of 24 thousand to Devadatta born in the Oḍra country. From him the following 14 disciples will receive the knowledge:—

(1) Rakta-Bhairava; (2) Jvålā; (3) Helā; (4) Vāma and (5) Vijaya—both born in Madhyadeśa as Atharvan; (6) Sīsamsa—born in Saurāṣṭra in Sūdra family; (7) Gajakarņa; (8) Caṇḍa—born in the Sindhu country; (9 and 10) Sīsamsa and Gajakarņa—both Kṣatriya princes; (11) Yajñasoma—(?) an Atharvan Brahmin; (12)?, (13)?, (14)?. The last of them a Brahmin will worship the goddess Bṛhodarī in the outskirts of a village called Bṛhodarī, after the name of the goddess and will attain spiritual

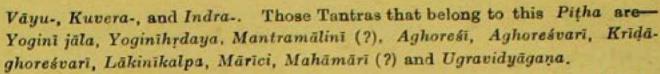
knowledge (vidyā). He will get the sacred lore from Padmabhairava, attain perfection and become the maker of Tantras."

The 39th Chapter of the Brahmayāmala called Srotanirnaya is of great interest for the classification of the Tantras. This chapter has been referred to above, and partially utilised, cf. p. 5. On being questioned by his consort, the Deva (=Siva) explains the three traditions (srotas) called Dakṣina, Vāma and Madhyama. These traditions follow the three Saktis of the great God which encompass the three worlds and their beings. The Dakṣiṇa-śrota is characterised by the predominance of the Sattva guṇa, the Vāma—by the Rajas and the Madhyama—by the Tamas. Hence those beings that are placed in the Dakṣina—are pure (śuddha), those that are placed in the Vāma—are mixed (miśra) and those that are placed in the Madhyama—are unclean (aśeṣa-mala-ranjita).

यित्रतयं समाख्यातं ... सूर्त्तं सदासनः ।
परापरस्य देवस्य सर्वकार्यार्थं साधनं ।
ताभित्र्यांप्रसिदं सर्व तेलोकः सचराचरं ।
पर्यनां पत्रययेव ताभित्यांप्तः न संययः ।
दिच्छाधिष्ठितः कथित् वाभयाधिष्ठितो परः ।
मध्यमाधिष्ठितः कथित् विधा जन्तु स्ववस्थितः ।
सच्चाधिकस्तया कथित् कथिवैव रजीधिकः ।
तमोधिकस्तया कथिक्तिभेदेन संस्थितः ।
दिच्छाधिष्ठितः ग्रजी मित्री वामाययस्त्या ।
भग्रीषमलसन्दोहरिखती मध्यमात्रयः ॥ (fol. 160°)

The Tantras also follow these three traditions and may be classified accordingly. The Tantras of each class follow a particular line of Sādhanā (kriyā-bheda). Hence there are three classes of Tantras—Dakṣiṇa or śuddha, Vāma or mixed (vimiśra) and Madhyama or aśuddha. Seven crores of Mantras belong to the Dakṣiṇa tradition, seven crores to the Vāma tradition and three and a half crores to the Madhyama tradition. These are said to have been promulgated by Gurus like Srīkaṇṭha and others.

(1) The Dakṣiṇa tradition issued forth from the right mouth of Siva. It is classified according to the four piţhas and also as pure and impure. The four piţhas are Vidyāpiţha, Mantra-, Mudrā-, and Maṇḍala-. There are eight Bhairavas belonging to the Vidyāpiṭha—Svacchanda, Krodha, Unmatta, Ugra, Kapālī, Jhaṅkāra, Sekhara and Vijaya. The eight Yāmalas belonging to this piţha are—Rudrayāmala, Skanda-, Brahma-, Viṣṇu-, Yama-,



The Bhairavas belonging to the Mantrapitha are Vira-Bhairava, Canda-Bhairava, Gudakā-Bhairava, Mahā-Bhairava, and Mahā-vireśa. The two pithas, Mantra- and Mudra- are closely connected and the Mudrās are distinguished by the varieties of Mantra. The mandalas are determined by the presence of Gods like Siva and Rudra who are derived from the Mudrā-pitha.

(2) The middle current or tradition issued forth from the upper mouth of Siva. The Tantras which belong to this current are—Vijaya, Niśvāsa, Svāyambhuva, Vāthula, Vīrabhadra, Raurava, Mākūṭa and Vīreśa. These belong to the Siva class. The Tantras of a still higher class belonging to the Rudra class are—Candrajnāna, Vimba, Prodgīta, Lalita, Siddha-santāna, Sarvodgīta, Kiraṇa and Pāramešvara.

The gods and sages who have divulged the knowledge of Siva (Sivajāāna) are Iśvara, Mahādevī, Brahmā, Vīrabhadra, Kumāra, Nandīśvara,
Mahākāla. Uśanā, Bṛhaspati, Dadhīci, Kaca, Lakulīśa....Sanatkumāra,
Viṣṇu and Parameśvara. The Iśvara communicated the Vijaya, the Devi
the Niśvāsa, Brahma the Svāyambhuva and Vīrabhadra, Kumāra—the
Agneya, Nandī the Raurava, Mahākāla the Candrajāāna (?), Uśanā the
Vīreśa which is the Āṅgirasa knowledge, Dadhīci the Mūlavimba, Kaca
the Prodgīta, Lalitā the Lalita, Brahmā the Kiraṇa, Viṣṇu the Sarvodgīta,
and Parameśvara the Pārameśvara.

This Siva lore was established in multifarious forms on this earth and all kinds of beings attained perfection by practising the Mantras promulgated through these Tantras.

### IV. Pingalamata

The text is preserved in the Darbar Library in a Palm-leaf MS, dated Nepal Samvat 294=1174 A.D. (cf. ante, p. 7). The introductory chapter called Vyākhyāprakaraṇa and the first chapter called Praśnaprakaraṇa (1ª.6°) are full of materials which are of interest to the historian of the Tantra literature. The text is narrated in the form of a conversation between the goddess Pingalā and the Bhairava.

The Bhairava at first explains the words like Agama, Sāstra, Jāāna, Tantra, etc. It is called Agama because spiritual knowledge proceeds from it to every direction. It is called Sāstra because everything is controlled

and protected by it. It is Jñāna because everything can be known with its help and it is Tantra because everything is always preserved and perpetuated by it.

चाक् भावस्त(?) समन्ताच गम्यतेत्यागमी मतः। यास्यते वायते यखात् तथाच्छास्तमुदाहतम्। चायते नयते येन जानं तेनाभिधीयते। तनुते चायते नित्यं तन्तमित्यं विदुव्धाः॥

The Tantra, first communicated by Siva came down through tradition. It is Agama, with the characteristics of Chandas. It is learnt by the Panditas for the benefit of the listeners but it is really meant for the sādhakas.

क्न्दोलचणसंसिद्धमागमेत्यभिषीयते । त्रोत्वकृतन्यायेन स च जेयस्त पखितै: ॥

The composition (sambandha) is of two kinds—general (sādhāraṇa) and particular (asādhāraṇa). All other Tantras belong to the former class as they are well-known whereas the present Tantra is asādhāraṇa as it is not well-known. While narrating a Tantra four things are to be kept in mind—denomination (abhidhāna), cause (nimitta), maker (kartā), and extent (pārimāṇa). First of all the question of necessity (prayojana) arises and then the question of the maker.

स च साधारणी होकस्वनीऽसाधारणी भवेत्।
स वै तनः प्रसिद्धनु साधारणः स उच्यते ॥
चस्य तन्तस्य यः सिद्धन्तदासाधारणं विदुः।
ददानौं संप्रवच्यासि सन्बन्धोऽतैव यद्भवेत्॥
चिम्रधाननिभित्तच कत्तारं परिमाणकम्।
प्रयोजनं कथिवादौ प्रयादका तु वर्णयेत्॥

What is the denomination of this Tantra? Its denomination is Pingalāmata. It follows the Pratisthākalpa called the Jayadratha (yāmala?) belonging to the Brahmayāmala. It was composed for the goddess Pingalā. Bhagavān Srīkantha is its maker and its extent is 8,000 verses. It is again of two kinds—Kāmarūpī and Uḍḍiyānī. This is Kāmarūpī. Its necessity is to promulgate the method of establishing the linga, both manifested and unmanifested.

प्रस्य तन्त्रस्य का संज्ञा, पिङ्गलामतसंज्ञा। प्रतिष्ठाकस्यं जयद्रयाधिकारं ब्रह्मयामलस्यानुयातीति च पिङ्गलाः भद्रारकायाः निमित्तम्। कः कत्तां, भगवान् श्रीकछनायः कत्तां। कियन्तः परिमाणाः, पष्ट सङ्ग्रमिति।



सं च चित्रिधं कामह्य्योडयानी च। भयच कामद्यो किं प्रयोजनम्। व्यक्ताव्यक्तविङ्गप्रतिष्ठालच्यम्। परिज्ञापनार्थ-प्रयोजनमिति।

When the form of the *linga* is manifested it is *vyakta*, when it is unmanifested it is *avyakta* and when it possesses both the characteristics it is *vyaktāvyakta*.

Then follows a logical disquisition:

प्रागिवाभिसम्बन्धो वक्तव्यः। स च विविधः। धवतार्यावतारकलचणः सम्बन्धः, व्यद्याव्यवकः लचणः सम्बन्धः, प्रकाद्य-प्रकाशकलचणः सम्बन्धयेति। तवावतार्यावतारकलचणः सम्बन्ध उच्यते। धाचार्यस्य च शास्त्रस्थावतार्य्यशास्त्रस्थाचार्योवतारकमिति। व्यद्याव्यवकलचणः सम्बन्ध उच्यते। लचणस्य लचं व्यवनम्। लचस्य लचणं व्यवक्रमिति। प्रकाय्य प्रकाशकलचणः सम्बन्ध उच्यते। शब्दस्यार्थः प्रकाश्योर्थेष्य शब्दं प्रकाशकिमिति।

The seven Tantras which follow the Brahmayāmala are: Daurvāsyam, Pāicikam, Sārasvatamatam, Jayadratha, Phetkāra, Raktādya(?) and Lampaṭādya (?). Amongst these the Jayadratha again consists of seven sūtras—Sūtra, Uttarasūtra, Saktisūtra, Kriyāsūtra, Vimalajāāna and Sarvasandoha.

दीवांस्यं पैचिकं चैव सारस्ततमतं तथा।
जयद्रथय फेत्कारं पश्चमं परिकौत्तिंतं।
रक्तायं लंपटायश्च सप्तथा ब्रह्मयामलं।
एतेषां सप्तविधस्वजातीनां मध्ये किमिति—
जयद्रथमेतत् जयद्रथमपि सप्तविधस्वं—
स्व मुत्तरमृश्च शक्तिस्वं क्रियाह्रयम्।
विमलज्ञानसंज्ञा च सवैसन्दोड सप्तमम्॥

The present text, the *Pingalāmata*, belongs to the *Kalpārtha* subdivision of the *Kriyāsūtra*. The *Kriyāsūtra*, which is one of the seven classes of Tantras mentioned above is of five kinds and amongst these the *Kalpārtha* is an important class.

विनागार्वनरचव(?) मन्तध्यानसमन्तिता। कल्पार्थसन्नियुका च पचचा तु क्रिया मता।

एतेषां पश्चविधिकवास्ताणां मध्ये किमिति। कल्पार्यसित्रयुक्त-स्वमैतत्। कल्पार्यमिति किम् ? कल्पसार्यकः कल्पार्थः, कल्पार्यन सम्यक्युकः कल्पार्थसित्रयुक्तः। चयवा

> मकदौचाविग्रहमु साधिकारपदान्तितः । कुर्याह्निद्वात्रयं मन्ती जाला लिङ्गं सलचणं।

मन्तमपि लिक्न' यतो लिक्नात्रयात् पात्र' देवलं विष्टपैरपि । यतः सिडार्यकसामाविक्रमेवं समाययेत्।

The concluding portion of the Introductory chapter deals with the methods of explanation, the time suitable for it and some introductory rites.

The first chapter the Praśnaprakarana begins with a definition of linga and a description of the Acaryas who are competent to worship it.

वयं वै हेतुसंसिद्धं लयणं भावसम्मतम्।

शास्त्रोकं वयणं चापि प्रमाणं दौर्धमिष्यते (?) ॥

हिन्दानीति पदोक्तानं विभागं सिङ्गरूपकम्।

खीयते प्रवयान्ते च पङ्गतो (?) सजते पुनः ॥

खयनाङ्गमनाचैव सिङ्गमित्यभिधीयते।

सिङ्गा प्रत्यक्रक्रोके द्यातोनुग्रहहित्कम्।

सिङ्गा प्रत्यक्रक्रोके द्यातोनुग्रहहित्कम्।

सिङ्गायकमितिहनान्ययात्र्यणं व्रतम् ॥

तिक्रिङ्गं दिविधं प्रोक्तं चलाचलिक्नोचदम्।

भोगदं यहवेक्रोके यिवेनागमतः ग्रग्र॥

Then follows the distinction between sādhāraņa and višeṣa-

विश्वीत्तरगतेनैव नगधाचापरेव न । हिमाद्रे दचिये भागे पद्मालात पूर्वतसथा। त्राव्यांवर्त इति स्थातनहवावार्यमध्यती। चयजना कुलोइ तो सर्वसाधारको यत:। विशेषणच तथा वृति भयवी मित्रवाचक:। मकानां जनितं जनाजनारित्यभिधीयते। कपूर्वाष्टविनिभुक्ती चन्यदेशोहवावि । कामहपकच्छकायमोरी कालिकी कोडकोहबी। काश्विकोश्रलका व सीराष्ट्रशाविष वर्जयेत । किमये चेत ततसिंहायें भी वार्य सवेजी ग्रभी। शिववत्रधराचार्थी नाति दीर्घीतिष्ठस्वकः। प्रमायेन न जीनाक्षेत्र चापि अधिकांशक:। सन्पूर्णावयवैदि वीर्विचित्री न गठ कचित। न मनी भाना वे चित्ती दर्ध वे शीरमूत्तमम्। सचलचयसंयुक्तः प्रतिष्ठा ... न वेदकः । विद्यावास्त्रविधानश्ची लिङ्कस्त्रविधानवित । व्योतिये च कृताभ्याम्: योगाभ्यासरतः सटा। साधको वासमानः माद् ग्रहको नेति वा ग्रह्म।

#### APPENDIX

ररहस्थी ररहणीयोगात् यागमीली विधानवित्। उदानासत्त्वसम्पन्नः मिल्पचावृद्धिकीयलः। श्रीतीसै सर्वकार्येषु चवांत्री च विशेषतः। भिवसकोनुरक्षय गुरुसमातः मिल्पिराट्॥

Those who are unfit for the worship of the Linga are described in the following verses:—

न काणो विधरीश्यय वीटकर्णाः । किन्ननासांगुलिपादं क्रो नी नाधिकांगकः । न जीनापूर्णकायम् .....॥

The materials for making a linga are of various kinds-

शेलं तर सटं चैव सीवर्णं तासरीयकम् । चैत्यकांस्यवापुसं च कासीसायसजान्यपि । चस्त्रावीस्त्रजं चैव रवजं मिक्सम्यवम् । तर्वेतुस्थानकं .......... मेश्वमन्द्रकेलाग्रग्यो विपुलनोलकी । निवधद्वेमकृटय सपार्थोप्यय ग्रह्मवान् । चैतको भूधरा होते महाचेतेत्ररा: स्नृता: ।

The places fit for the installation of the linga are the seven kulaparvatas and the banks of the rivers issuing from them up to the distance of 10 yojanas

सिकानां प्रवत्यामि ये यथा सक्षवानि हि। उज्जयन्तो हरियन्द्र: यक्तिमान् कुलपर्वता:। नयो यासदिनिक्कान्ता...वनानि तु। नयुभयतटे रम्ये उपपूर्वे नवानि वै (?)। एतेषां बाह्यत: स्थानं योजनानि द्रवेव च॥

## V. Jayadrathayāmala

The Jayadrathayāmala to which we have referred more than once is one of the most important and extensive tantras. It is divided into 4 parts called satka, each containing 6,000 verses. The complete work is thus a caturvimśati-sāhasra. The complete text of the 1st, 3rd and 4th satkas and an incomplete text of the 2nd are preserved in the Darbar Library. As the MS, of the 4th part is of the end of the 12th century, and as it presupposes the existence of the first three satkas we can assume

that the text is fairly old. The Jayadrathayāmala is also called Sirascheda, and as this Sirascheda is referred in a Cambodian inscription of the 9th-century (cf. ante, p. 15) the text was composed in India before that date. It is not however certain if all the 4 satkas were known at that time. The Jayadrathayāmala however contains much important materials for the history of the Tantrik literature.

Satka I (cf. Sastri, Darbar Library Cat., II, pp. 1ff.)—Folia 393; Slokas 6,000 written in Newari character; MS. dated 843=1723 A.D. Colophon:

इति भैरवस्रोतिस विदापीठे श्रीजयद्रथयामले महातन्ते चनुर्विष्यतिसाहस्रे प्रथमपट्के श्रीकाल-सङ्ग्रेखां विदासम्प्रदाय-षट्कमाहात्मग्रादिवर्णनं पञ्चायत्तमः पटलः इति समाप्तम् श्रीजयद्रथयामले प्रथम-षट्कमिति ग्रभम् ।

The 35th chapter of this satka called Sambandhāvatāra contains interesting information on the history of Tantrik literature.

सामान्यं च विशेषं च साधारणविशेषतः। विश्वेषतरसत्यच शास्त्रमणं चत्विधं। इतिहासपराणानि गणितं काव्यनाटकं। कन्दोसि शब्दशास्त्रानि सामान्यविषयाणि त । सर्वेषां वर्षिकाणां तु सामान्यत्रवणादिह । स्तिख्य्पनिषदी सन्तम्वं प्रकस्पकं। धानीचंकं च विज्ञानं साधारणं विशेषगं। दिनं ते..... नायनी नाधिकारिय:। सीरं केवं पश्चरातं प्रमाणं विश्लं मतं। चयवं सांख्ययोगं च बीडमारहतादिकं। विश्रेषाच्यं यतसंतं विश्रेषसमयात स्थिति:। भैरवं बज्यानं च गुद्धादाक्र समाब्दं। भूततनादि तनां च विशेषतरमुखते। एवं चतुर्विधं शास्त्रं जीकिकादां च पश्चधा। लीकिकं वैदिकाध्यात्ममतिमार्गमयार्थवं। फलभेदविभिन्नं च गालमेवं तु पद्यथा।... एवसेतानि शास्त्राचि सामान्यादीनि यानि तु । न चामिधार्त युगपच्छकाते तानि कैनचित्। युगपहक्रमभ्याखा बन्धांमध तत् स्थितं। बाच्चमिकतमं शास्त्रं सामान्यायामनुक्रमात् ।

#### APPENDIX

सचणादास्य मास्त्रस्य .....।
पद्य सामानाविश्रेषः सामस्यग्यजुषः प्रिये।
याखावरणभित्रस्य सृत्यंतरमतस्य तु।
पद्य वै श्रेषमास्त्रस्य शैवसिडालदिपदः।
यिवदद्रभेदसंत्रः क्रमी वाक्यी विपयिताः।
विशेषतरमास्त्रस्य चतुःपद्यगतस्य तु।...

On the question of Sambandha and Pitha-

योखकाविभेदीन तथ विश्वेवमर्थितं। संबंधीयमभिन्नीपि स्थानभेदाहिभेदाते। महज्ञानाराख्यं च तथा वांतरमेव च। दिव्यं मित्रमदिव्यं च षोदा संबंधलचणं। विद्विक्तिसंबंध सहान्त्री हगाताभि:। क्रियाधर्मप्रदेशात्मानं तथाख्याः प्रकीर्तितः । सदाभिवस्य बीरायां समादेश विवर्तितां। बोध्यबोधकसंबन्धः प्रीचिते वांतरात भवां। सदा श्वपद।वस्यो वोधकायी सदिनकः। संबंधो दिव्यसंज्ञल मियय मानदैविक:। भ द्यमिमान्यसंवसीयं ग्रक्समात्। योसी परापर: प्रोक्तो देव: सदामिव:। योगात्मानं तु वीर्यसु पश्चमत्तमहातनुः। व्यक्ताव्यक्षमयं तस्य व्यक्तानां तु चतुष्टयं। ज्ञान ज्ञीयमयं चास्य व्यक्ताव्यकां च प्रथमं। पञ्चवकुस्त(१) भी बौर: प्रमन्नस्रोतमां स्थित:।

The pithas are four-Mantrapitha, Vidyāpitha, Mudrāpitha and Mandalapitha.

The 36th chapter called Sūtranirnaya contains an enumeration of the Tantras of various traditions. The Tantras of the Vidyāpītha are:

सर्ववीरसमायोगं सिडायागिश्वरी मतं।
पञ्चासतं च विश्वादां योगिनी जालग्रक्वरं।
विद्याभिदं शिरत्वेदं महासम्बोहनं तथा।
तयोत्वरं महारीद्रं रुद्रयामलभव च।
ब्रह्मयामलसंग्नं च तथान्यं विश्वयामलं।
दश्च तु..... पञ्चदशं मतं।
सद्दभदो हरिस्कन्दगौतमीयामलान्वितं।

The last chapter of the 1st satka (41st chapter) deals with the Yānala, Mangala, Astaka and the lineage of the ancient rsis who promulgated the Tantras. The eight Yānalas have been mentioned in other places too, but the Brahmayāmala is the source of all ( यानवाना तु सर्वेश पाम्लं ब्रह्मवामलं ).

The eight Mangalas are—Bhairavamangalā, Candragarbha, Sānimangala(?), Sumangalā, Sarvamangalā, Vijayā, Ugramangalā, and Sadbhāvamangalā.

The Cakrāstakas are—Svaracakra, Varņanādī, Guhyākhya, Kālacakra, Saura, Heya(?) and Soma.

The Sikhāṣṭaka—Saukrī, Mandā(?), Mahocchuṣmā, Bhairavī, Samvarī, Prapaācakī, Mātṛbhedī and Rudrakālī.

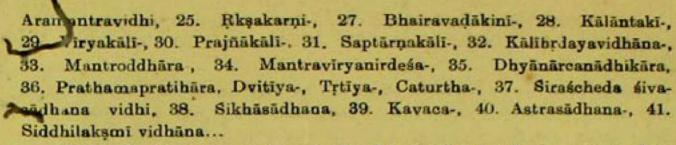
The ṛṣis are—(1) Durvāsā, Sanaka, Viṣṇu, Kapila, Kāśyapa, Kuru, Samvarta, Sankhapāla, Bhairava; (2) Bhṛgu, Svetonivīśa(?), Viśvāmitra, Gautama, Gālava, Yājňavalkya, Vibhāmda; (3) Kurcāla, Kundana, Kamka, Kekara, Kānana, Kṣamī, Kāṭarākṣa, Samvarta, Manākhya; (4) Vindu, Savindu, Sātātapa, Parāśara, Āpastamba, Bubhukhyā a(?), Kātyāyana,... these are mentioned in the Mangalāṣṭaka as promulgators of Tantras.

- (5) Ulūka, Sthūlanāḍī, Hamsa, Hamsakha, Suka, Manu, Pītokṣaka—are the promulgators, of Cakrāṣṭaka.
- (6) Vašistha, Daksa, Sukra, Kanaka, Kokila, Suka, Višvabhū, Kāšyapa and Sveta promulgated the Sivākhya.
- (7) Brhaspati,.....Ghamta, Kamkara, Syāmaka, Sikhi, Karņajata and Dhīşa.
- (8) Harnsa, Soma, Anuloma, Viloma, Lomaka, Sata, Jata and Vālmika.

Satka II (cf. Sastri, Darbar Library Catalogue, I, p. 175)—preserved in a copy dated 762 (i.e., 1642 A.D.). There is a very interesting śloka at the beginning—

तैसिकानां यहं गला कुधकारयहं तु वा। तथ तत्पतिभिः साई यजित परमेखरीम्।

The names of chapters are:



Satka III—The third satka of the Jayadrathayāmala is preserved in MS. of about the 17th century; the writing is Newari, cf. ante, p. 7, n. 2. The total number of pages is 215. The colophon runs thus—

एवमेतत् मया ख्यातं तत्वमेतदनुत्तमम्।
विस्टिन पुराधीतं नरनारायकैरिय ॥
व्रद्धया मत्समीपे तु चिरन्केदं मडावलम्।
व्रद्धमत्त्वगयाकोर्यं तवाद्य प्रकटीकृतम्॥...
तदास्य पियमे जन्म जातव्यं नरसत्तमै:॥
यदाकरगतं तन्तं चिरन्केदमनुत्तमम्।
विस्तासाडारयात् अस्य सरज्ञानं प्रवर्तते॥...

इति भैरवसं)तमि विद्यापीठे बिरन्केटे जयद्रयशमली महातन्ते चतुर्विवितसाहसे ... (effseed)
The chapters are the following:

- 1. Praśnāvatāra.
- Trailokyadāmaracakre mantroddhāravidhi, 3. Trailokyadāmaracakre nyāsavidhi, 4. -dhyāna-, 5. Vyāpti. 6. Angoddhāra. 7. Yāgādividhi, 8. Sādhanā-vidhi.
  - 9-10. Pratyangirā-vidhi.
- Cakreśvari-vidhau mautroddhāra, 12. Dhyāna, 13. Dikṣābhiṣeka,
   Sādhanaprakaraņa, 15. Kuṇḍaleśvarividhi.
  - 16. Ghoratarācakce sahasrākṣarāyām mantroddhāravidhi, 17. Vyāpti,
- 18. Dhyana, 19. Caturvimsati diksavidhi. These are-
- (1) Tattvadīkṣā, (2) Kāladīkṣā, (3) Bhuvanadīkṣā, (4) Padadīkṣā, (5) Varṇa-, (6) Mantra-, (7) Sakti-, (8) Bindu-, (9) Nāda-, (10) Prāṇa-, (11) Jīva, (12) Cora-, (13) Sparśa-, (14) Vedha-, (15) Dhaṭa(?)-, (16) Vastra-, (17). Ghaṭa-, (18) Sadyonirvāṇa-, (19) Nirvāṇa-, (20) Dīkṣādvādaśavidhi-, (21) Ālokadīkṣā, (22) Jñāna-.
  - 20 Ghoratarā yaga, 21 -patālasiddhi, 22 -cakravidhi.
- 23 Yoginīcakre šambarotpatti, 24 -sāmānyahrdayoddhāra, 25 Yoginī-sancāre cakroddhāra, 26 siddhayoga, 27 (?) 28 -kālajnāna, 29 -paramacakravidhāna, 30 -sāmānyavišeṣa. 31 -samayācāre ceṣṭāvidhāna, 32 -kālacakrašaṭkotpatti.

33. Avyapadesyakālpyavidhi, 34. Devīsvarūpanirūpanavidhi, 35. Bhāṣākrama, 36. Avatārakrama, 37. Kālikākrama, 38. Devatākrama, 39. Vratavidhi.

Satka IV—The fourth satka exists in the Darbar Library in an older MS. which probably belonged to Kanoj and was copied in the end of the 12th century or in the beginning of the 13th by a disciple of the Kulācārya of King Jayacandra. The colophon runs thus—

P. 339b-340a

दात भैरवस्रोतसि विद्यापौठे शिरन्तेदे जयद्रययामले महातन्ते चतुर्विश्रतिसाहसे चतुर्येषटके महास्वाधीविधी...सिद्धिपटलः। समाप्तायं सुद्राषट्कं जयद्रयावतारे...समाप्तय परमरहस्ययतुर्विश्रतिसहस्रं स्वराजजयद्रयेन्द्रं। अधिगतसक्तवशस्त्रस्य योगिनोइन्द्वन्दितचरण्यगलस्य विविधविद्योतितां तन्करणस्य महाकाविकस्य महाराजाधिराज-योगज्ञयचन्द्र-देवप्तितस्य-कुलावार्य-य धरणोपादेव-नामधेयस्य यिष्येण पिछत-योजोसदेवेन लिखितमिति। ग्रभमस् सर्वस्थानां सङ्क्रमहायो ।

The names of the various chapters and sections are the following:

Mudrākoša, Sabdakāli vidhi, Kālikrama, Rābinī yāga, —sādhana, —cakre kulāvatāra, Vyaktinirdeša, abhiṣeka, bhāgyāvaropaphalanī—, Purakṣobha—, Rābinīcakre vidveṣakāli, —tattvasvarūpa, —vidveṣakāli, —sarvakarmakarī. —samgrāmakalpa, —saptadašārnā, —mohakāli, —bhramarešvarī, —cakramelāpaka vidhi (in 7 sections), —kātikrama, —kālikākula, —kālikula, —mahābhāgyodaya, —nāgāšanī, —meghakāli, —priyākālī, —pāpāntaki, —srambhakāli, —kālarātri, —kāli, —melāpākāli, —nityakāli, —paramākṣarā, —netrakālī, —hṛdayakāli, —ekātarā, —vāgvidhi, —caṇḍaroṣaṇī, —jagatkṣobhakālī, —bbairavamālinī, —saṃhāracakrodaya, —kālasamvedanī, —siddhaprayoga-mañjarī, —bhairavānanā, —bhairavavyāpti, —nirālambakrama, —bhāva-amhārabheda, —ādyayāga, —vīratāṇḍava, —pustekārikāra, —vyākhyākrama. —gurušiṣyācāra, —siddhayogešvarī, —mahālakṣmīcakre devyutpatti-mantroddhāra.